The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 20, 1895.

The Week.

It is an old commercial maxim that the condition of the iron industry is the most faithful index to general trade conditions. That industry is always, therefore, worth especial study. It will be recalled that in April, when many staple products were advancing rapidly in value, some doubts were suggested as to the permanency of the business revival, and the slowness of iron and steel to share in the recovery was used as an argument. These great staples certainly did fail in that month to reflect in full the movement of better promise. There was some advance in prices, but this was due to a partly speculative move by which the largest Pennsylvania producer, having a full supply of finished material on hand, marked up prices and wages simultaneously in order to force a profitable margin for the stored-up iron. It was, however, said by careful observers at the time that, whether the move was speculative or not, its success in "pegging" prices proved that normal conditions justified it. And this judgment is verified by the event. A really violent advance in prices began with the second week in May. Since then the further recovery has been so rapid that Bessemer pig-iron a week ago sold $2.20 a ton above the January minimum, an advance of 22½ per cent. Steel billets, the other index of the trade, advanced meantime, as compared with March quotations, $3.25, or 22 per cent.

That this advance is no longer a matter of simple speculation, and, least of all, a result of "cornering," is proved by the record of stocks of manufactured iron. During the month of May, when prices were rising with greatest rapidity, the stock of manufactured iron on hand at the leading furnaces actually decreased 95,597 tons, or more than 12 per cent. The *Iron Age* remarks further that this legitimate demand has hardly as yet been swelled at all by the greatest customers of the iron trade—the railways. That a really heavy inquiry from this source is near at hand, is evident to all observers of the transportation industry. Railway gross earnings are showing an increase of from 6 to 8 per cent. over 1894, and if the returns of companies in the depleted "corn belt" are excluded from the reckoning, the percentage gain becomes much larger. Weekly returns show this improvement to be continuous, and when the increase has reached the point of safety, it may be taken as certain that very large expenditures will be made for material to improve the physical condition of the roads. The Pennsylvania system has already set the example; others will soon follow; and the result will appear in all branches of industrial production. This forecast justifies the comment of the *Iron Age* that "the gain in value [of iron] thus far has merely been the gradual opening of the bow when released from tension. Wages have improved, together with prices, but until we are again back in an even line with conditions as they existed at the time of the panic, we are surely justified in both hoping for and expecting a further enhancement of values."

The Memphis monetary convention No. 2 was called for the express purpose of counteracting Memphis convention No. 1. How has it gone to work to do it? The earlier convention set out to demonstrate the fact that the solid business men of the South were for honest money. It was made up of delegates from chambers of commerce and boards of trade, bankers, merchants, and manufacturers. They maintained, by speeches and resolutions, that the Harrises, the Blands, the Turpies, the Stewarts, and the general run of Populist hangers-on did not fairly represent the business sense of even their own section. In this lay the value and encouragement of the gathering, and its effect was so marked both in this country and in Europe that the silver-men became alarmed and set about getting up a counter-demonstration. But all they have done is to prove the exact truth of what the business men of the South had affirmed. The charge was that only a collection of old Bourbon Senators and political men-of-all-work and Populist adventurers could be found to advocate free coinage of silver, and to refute it there is devised a grand round-up of these very political nondescripts. The country will not be very much impressed by the great discovery that Harris, and Bryan, and Sibley, and their tools and victims stand just where they did before. Yet that is all that their convention really proves.

Politically, the Memphis convention ran away from its own issue. It would not declare for a separate silver party. Torn by the struggle between devotion to silver and devotion to the offices, it gave in to the latter. Some of the bolder spirits were for cutting loose from the old parties and nominating each other for the Presidency; but so many cries of "God forbid!" arose from the office-holders and would-be office-holders present that the resolutions had to dodge the whole thing. This practically serves notice on the managers of either party that the tremendous silver bolt will never "materialize." The Memphis conveners are silver's own true lovers, but they are intenser lovers of party regularity and consequent eligibility to office. So if the national platforms of their respective parties do not meet their views, their views can be altered to meet the platforms. As it is flatly inconceivable that either party will be found next June deliberately splitting itself in two as the best way to carry the Presidential election, the failure of the Memphis convention to display the courage of its own lack of convictions is tantamount to a guarantee that there will be no Silver party pure and simple. Thus its total political effect is but to mark another stage in the ebbing of the silver madness. Some of the delegates themselves could not help betraying their consciousness that the fight was going against them. The gold-bugs, said one, might think the silver craze was about over, but they would find that they were very much mistaken. When men talk like that, the next thing is collapse and surrender.

The tide is now everywhere setting strongly against the free-coinage movement. The results of the Democratic primaries in Kentucky assure the defeat of Senator Blackburn in his efforts to commit the State convention to the "16 to 1" idea. As Kentucky was supposed to be hopelessly given over to the silverites six weeks ago, the change of sentiment thus demonstrated is most striking and significant. Ohio is another State where the Democrats have gone half crazy over silver, but are now recovering their senses. Young Thurman has been loudly boasting that Franklin County, which contains Columbus, would send to the approaching State convention a solid free-coinage delegation; but when the caucuses were held, the sound-money men carried everything before them, and the indications are now hopeful that a rational plank will be adopted. Another sign of the dwindling enthusiasm for silver is found in the failure of the Bimetallic League in Kansas to gather the expected crowds at the State convention in Topeka. Both Republicans and Democrats fight shy of the scheme, and the Bimetallic League appears likely soon to be only another name for the Populist party.

The revised returns of the Director of the Mint as to the world's gold production for 1894 bring the total up to $181,510,000. This is $11,000,000 greater than the estimates of the bureau published a few weeks ago, and $30,000,000 greater than the output of 1893. Dismal news this for the 16-to-1 silverites, some of whom are now asking what the gold-bugs will do if the production becomes excessive and the prices of commodities rise in consequence. Bless your hearts, the gold-bugs will

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not demonetize gold, however plentiful it may become. They will stand and take it; they will grin and bear it. Director Preston's statistics show another fact quite as surprising, viz., that the world's production of silver for the same year, reckoned in ounces, is somewhat greater than that of the previous year, notwithstanding the decline in price. This is not remarkable when we consider that the construction of railroads and the improvements of machinery and processes of extraction are only now beginning in some of the most important silver-producing countries, especially Mexico and South America. Every new railway and steam-engine introduced for the first time into these countries makes some mines productive that could not be worked before.

Perhaps the most crushing part of the avalanche of fact that poor "Coin" has brought upon himself is the proof, from actual market reports, that the farmer has *not* been hurt by the fall in prices since 1873, whatever has caused that fall. Prof. Laughlin has shown that the farmers of the Northwest really get more goods now in exchange for their wheat and corn than they did in 1873. What he showed for that region has now been shown for Virginia in a most practical and telling little pamphlet, "Free Coinage and the Farmer," by Mr. E. C. Klipstein. The writer has had access to the books of a prominent country merchant of Virginia, covering the years 1867 to 1895, and showing the real exchangeable value of produce in goods, then and now. In 1867 the farmer could get for 50 bushels of wheat, 100 bushels of corn, 500 pounds of pork, and 100 cross-ties, a money price of $289.50; in 1895, he would get but $138. There is the free-coinage argument in a nutshell: the farmer robbed of half his crops by the gold monopoly. But look further, and see what the farmer could do with his money in 1867 and what he can do with it now. Mr. Klipstein gives a long list of prices of groceries, dry goods, hardware, tools, etc., of daily necessity to the farmer, and shows that an average consumption of these articles would have cost, under 1867 prices, $341.08. In 1895 the same things could be bought for $112.05. Thus the Virginia farmer's loss by falling prices is really a considerable gain. On the transaction referred to he would be $77 to the good—that is, to supply his needs in 1867 he would have had to add $51.58 to his produce, while now he could purchase the same things with his produce and have $25.95 to his credit.

Some of the English bimetallists appear to have taken fright at their own prophecies. The immense blessings which they have pictured as the sure result of bimetallism have had the effect of seriously alarming the conservative and property-owning classes. These know well enough that there is no hocus-pocus in any kind of currency contrivance to make all the poor rich, to enable debtors to settle with their creditors, and to make everybody live happy ever afterwards. So they have frankly said to Balfour and Courtney and the others: "We do not like your bimetallic millennium at all. Please prove to us that you are not proposing to make other people rich by making us poor." Mr. Courtney saw the awkwardness of this demand, and tried to reassure his alarmed friends by asserting, in a debate on bimetallism at the London Institution, that after the adoption of silver coinage "the common mass of mankind would pursue their customary life in happy, ignorant unconsciousness of any change." Then where would the millennium come in? What has become of the promise of double prices for the English farmer and double wages for all laborers? If they got those would they be so happily unconscious of any change? We fear that Mr. Courtney, in trying to reassure the creditor class, has simply succeeded in disgusting the debtor class. If bimetallism means no change, no scaling of debts, no automatic diffusion of prosperity and virtue, it will lose all its charms.

Considerable anger has been aroused in the celestial minds of some protectionists over the question of imports of woollen goods under the new tariff. We are now importing a disastrous quantity, they say, such as no truly American tariff would ever allow to come in. One answer to this is to show that even greater amounts came in during a corresponding period under the McKinley tariff. The *Wool and Cotton Reporter* published comparative tables last week showing "a heavy increase" in the imports over the past year or two, "but, as compared with those of the fiscal year 1892-'93, the returns for the ten months of the current year make a far less discouraging showing, especially on dress goods and cloths." This is the way to shut a McKinley mouth. The way to shut a merely rational mouth is to take the position that if we import woollen goods, it is because we want them, and have something to give in exchange for them, and can spend our time to better advantage than in making them ourselves. The bigger the quantities we import, the greater amount of things we have to give in exchange for them, the better our wages and profits and general prosperity.

The new Secretary of State enters upon his office with a singularly peaceful and easy prospect, so far as foreign nations are concerned, owing to the unappreciated good sense and patriotism of his lamented predecessor. He has, therefore, a very exceptional chance to turn his thoughts to the reform of our consular service—a reform loudly called for by every one who has really looked into the matter in a statesmanlike and impartial way. More than one Secretary, notably Mr. Blaine, has suggested a reform of our consular system. Bills for its reconstruction on the merit basis have often been introduced into Congress. In the last Congress Senator Morgan had a good bill, which he tried to affix to the diplomatic appropriation bill; but our sapient Senators pronounced it not germane, at the same time that they accepted the appendage of a Government cable to Hawaii. Other bills were introduced in the House, one by Mr. Storer of Ohio; but they had no chance. The Hon. James B. McCreary of Kentucky, chairman of the House committee on foreign affairs, has no belief in any such pernicious novelties as the merit system; his name is recorded in the affirmative to strike out the appropriation for the Civil-Service Commission. No bill to take consulships out of politics could ever have passed the ordeal of a committee of which he was chairman.

But let not Secretary Olney wait for Congress. Let him as head of the State Department formulate a system for classifying, for examining, for promoting, for retaining consuls. Let it include examinations in foreign languages, in foreign products and statistics, in history—for the higher grades, in commercial and international law. The salaries, and the rank as determined by salaries, are not badly established by existing acts. They might be recast, but they will do well enough. Let Mr. Olney get Mr. Cleveland's assent to such a plan, and put it into immediate operation. The appointment of consuls is in the hands of the President, subject to the Senate's approval. He and the Secretary of State are emphatically the judges of how our consular intercourse is to be conducted. Let the system go out as a department ordinance, let the risk boldly be taken that Congress will not endorse it by a regulating act including the like provision, or that a subsequent secretary will have the false courage to go back to the spoils system and induce the next President to reverse Mr. Cleveland's action. Secretary Gresham drew off entirely from the distribution of patronage. His political antecedents made him perhaps the wrong man to grapple with the problem, and he had other work. Mr. Olney has the power; he has given strong indications that he has the will; and surely the way is now open to him.

The signing by the President of an order bringing the employees of the Government Printing Office at Washington under the civil-service rules is one of the most emphatic demonstrations of the practical success of our system of civil-service reform that have ever been offered. In the first place, it is most significant that the President's act was a compliance with a request made by the persons affected. Here is

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proof positive that civil-service rules not only do not work injustice, do not keep out of employment persons most fitted for the positions, but do afford protection to competent men when once their positions are secured. The signing of the order proves also that it is practicable to test the work of such employees as printers in the Government service, and upsets that old-time complaint that civil-service reform is adapted only to college graduates. A President not heartily committed to the rescue of the service from the spoilsmen could have found excuse enough for delaying action in this matter. President Cleveland, however, had already demonstrated his ability to overcome obstacles of this kind.

We learn from the *Columbia Spectator* that a most serious and alarming condition of affairs exists in the Columbia Law School. Eighteen out of forty-nine in the graduating class have been conditioned, thereby losing their degrees, and of nineteen seniors in the School of Arts who elected courses in law, eight "have been similarly treated." Nor should it be supposed that this was simply an ordinary case of deficient scholarship, or bad habits, or laziness. On the contrary, these conditioned men, according to the "unanimous opinion of their classmates," "far from being deserving of the treatment accorded them," were "among the brightest and most conscientious men in the class." This is grave enough, and we agree with the *Spectator* that "the surprisingly large number of men reported deficient reflects on the faculty, not on the students." The students have certainly done all that could be asked. They furnish bright and conscientious men, and then the faculty condition them. In such a state of affairs, it will not take "an unprejudiced observer" long, as the *Spectator* remarks, to see where the blame should be placed; and it asks with great force and pertinency, "Has a professor a right to condition men when he has been extremely slipshod in his own work?" Clearly, the professor is the man that should have been conditioned, not the bright and conscientious student whom all his classmates would have voted a degree *summa cum laude*. We are glad to see that the *Spectator* does not propose to let the affair drop. It calls upon the trustees to make a thorough investigation of the Law School, and settle once for all the great question, "Has a student no rights which a professor is bound to respect?" For our part, we never heard of such an outrage, except in the matter of civil-service examinations. In those, as everybody knows, the manly and bright and conscientious men always fail, and it is only the stupid and incompetent and shamefaced fellows who get through.

The decision of the United States Court of Appeals in the South Carolina registration case, reversing Judge Goff's ruling and dissolving the injunction he had granted, is based on the general ground that the Federal courts cannot pass upon abstract political questions. Some State courts of highest resort pronounce upon the constitutionality of laws as an abstract proposition, but the United States Supreme Court never does. It is essentially a "case" court. Somebody must show that he is injured or imperilled, either in his property or civil rights, by any given legislation before the court will so much as take up the question of its constitutionality. The fact that the averments in the complaint in the South Carolina case did not clearly assert a threatened infringement of such rights is plainly affirmed by the court to be the reason why it saw "no adequate ground for equity interposition." In other words, the registration laws, offensive and probably intentionally proscriptive as they are, were drawn in such general terms that no individual could positively declare that they were aimed at him, or that they directly impaired his rights under the Federal Constitution. The wrong, if any, was a political wrong, and the remedy must also be political. Doubtless the case will yet be heard before the Supreme Court, but there appears little reason to question that the general principles laid down by Chief-Justice Fuller in this Circuit Court decision will be sustained on final appeal.

The "yellow peril" is what is now troubling excitable folk in Europe. This does not refer to the deadly ravages of the yellow metal, from which people suffer in inverse ratio to the amount of the said metal they have about them, nor yet to the literary "yellows," which have hastened the passage of so many writers, as Mr. Zangwill says, into the sere and Yellow Book. The phrase covers, rather, the fear of a tremendous conflict impending with the yellow races of the Orient. It is to come, first of all, in the form of a crushing industrial competition. China and Japan are not extending their commercial treaties for nothing. They are planning to do the most gigantic dumping of cheap goods upon helpless Europe that the world ever saw. With their cheap and inexhaustible labor supply, with their patience, their artistic endowment, their quickness to adopt and appropriate all mechanic arts, who can stand against them? Perhaps the afflicted Europeans will try to repel the cheap goods by force of arms, but that will only bring on an unequal combat with the swarming millions who are even now aching for a chance to overrun Europe. These horrible imaginings will do to furnish forth an evening's gossip or evoke editorial wisdom; but the impending ravaging of Europe by the hordes of the East is even less likely to come off now than any time these two thousand years, during which it has been steadily predicted but never realized.

The International Miners' Congress, which met in Paris during the first week in June, did not receive the customary amount of attention this year. This may have been due in part to the comparatively small number of delegates, several of the great English mining unions having gone wholly unrepresented. But it is probably attributable more largely to the fact that the international fad is wearing out, and that a weary world is becoming more and more sceptical about the possibility of disposing of all the ills of life by international resolutions. Things like silver, an eight-hour day, over-production, a universal strike, old-age insurance, and employers' liability, that are too formidable for nations to grapple with singly, are pretty sure to be too much for them united. The congress, however, was singularly unanimous, and upon this fact the president congratulated it in his closing speech. Resolutions in favor of good wages for the coal-workers in all countries, and, at the same time, of fair interest on capital, were passed in perfect harmony. So was a sentimental resolve in favor of an eight-hour day. So was a declaration in favor of making employers responsible for all accidents, even where contributory negligence could be proved in the men. Such harmony is no doubt delightful, but it argues that the men of practical common sense either kept away or kept still.

It must be admitted that the English Government made a pretty abject submission to their Irish allies on Monday in the matter of the Cromwell statue. The grant for the statue should either never have been proposed, or should have been insisted upon and carried, as it could easily have been with Conservative help, in the teeth of the Irish. But the spirit of the ministry is evidently broken. Even rough-spoken Sir William Harcourt is getting meek and mild under the repeated losses of seats in bye-elections. He was very sharp with an ugly Scotch Liberal a few weeks ago, who wanted him to urge the Crofters' bill forward, threatening to resign from Parliament if his request was not granted. Sir William stiffly told Mr. Mac Gregor he could do as he pleased, and the angry Scot did resign. The result of the election to fill the vacancy was the loss of an apparently safe Liberal seat. A majority of only half-a-dozen or so cannot stand depletion in that way. If the ministry hold on, they will do so only at the pleasure of unruly followers, who will doubtless threaten and humiliate them from day to day as they perceive their power. Clinging to office under such circumstances is rather a melancholy business; it certainly will not lend the Government any prestige or put them in better shape for the general election, which they cannot stave off much longer in any event; when it does come, general opinion in England is that a Tory majority will be certain.

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PLENTY OF MONEY FOR THE PEOPLE.

MAHONE — Gen. Mahone — of Virginia, whose first choice for President is Don Cameron, lays down the following platform for his party:

"I am for more money; I don't care whether it is silver money or shinplasters. It does not seem to me to make any difference. . . . Of course, we should keep within proper bounds in issuing money, but we want to have that article sufficiently plentiful to allow the people to get hold of it."

This is the platform that the convention in session last week at Memphis really stood on. The discussions about silver were mere wind of doctrine. The delegates had, it was said, cards stuck in their hats bearing the device "16 to 1," which were intended to make the public believe that they had settled the great question of the ratio, and after mature consideration had agreed that anybody who wants to exchange gold for silver ought to do it at that rate. But this is really what the boys call "poppycock." The delegates do not care what the ratio is, because few or none of them possess either metal in quantities worth mention. The object of the convention was not to regulate the currency, but to allow the people to get hold of some money. The apparent unconcern of the bimetallists about the ratio has always astonished the monometallists. "How can they," the spectators have always asked, "keep on agitating in this way without ever mentioning the exact rate at which they were going to make silver exchange for gold? Ought they not to inform the public what the purchasing power of silver is to be under their system?"

The answer to these questions is, that the great bulk of active bimetallists as well as of silver-men never expect to engage in exchange operations to any great extent. The mass of them are either in debt, or have so little gold or silver that the ratio is hardly of any consequence to them. Most of them might well exclaim with Mahone: "I care nothing for your ratio or your material; what I want is money! I am entitled, all the papers tell me, to fifty dollars per caput, whereas I haven't a dollar in the house. What is the use of a 'caput' if the dollars that go with it are not forthcoming?" The price of commodities, except articles of food and clothing, is to a man who does not possess them a matter of supreme indifference. Diamonds might double in value to-morrow, leaving the mass of mankind perfectly unmoved. This accounts for the open-mindedness of most of the silver-men in the matter of ratio, and fineness, and all cognate questions. You can have any ratio you please, and make your money of any material you please, as far as they are concerned. There is, however, one kind of money on which they look with suspicion, and that is "honest money." The chaplain of the recent convention prayed that their labors might hasten the establishment of such money, *eo nomine*, but he was promptly called to account, and only got off by explaining that he meant "silver." The term "honest" recalls the old monarchical superstition that money is a measure of value; whereas, in our day, it is a commodity to be issued by the Government "direct to the people." A commodity issued direct to the people is neither honest nor dishonest. It is simply scarce or plentiful.

The attitude of such nations as Greece, Italy, Spain, Portugal, and Turkey towards silver is much the same as that of our silver-men. Having neither silver nor gold of their own, they are naturally indifferent to "the ratio," and would agree with England and America to keep it at any ratio they chose; 16 to 1, 30 to 1, 50 to 1—it would be all the same to them. It would be like a partnership between Mr. Vanderbilt and Mike Daly, to carry several blocks of real estate for an indefinite period. Mike would hardly make trouble about the rate of interest or the assessment for taxation. How the irredeemable-paper-money states would figure in the "international agreement," or what ratio their shinplasters would bear to gold under the treaty, has never been explained, and never will be, nor is it necessary. The big states can arrange it to suit themselves, but the others are sure to have the laugh on them in the end.

Foreigners who feel troubled by such bodies as the Memphis silver convention because they have interests in the United States, will never know what peace is until they have thoroughly familiarized themselves with the nature and history of American "crazes." These crazes are in reality fits of mild insanity, at present peculiar to this country, but likely to become endemic in all countries as democratic institutions spread. The attack is brought on by the combined action of publicity and impecuniosity. The impecunious man is generally unhappy, and in a large number of cases his impecuniosity is due to dislike of steady industry, or to some moral defect which makes steady employment difficult. Under these circumstances an American gifted with fluency and fond of notoriety almost inevitably turns his attention to defects in our government, by way of accounting for his own condition. A few blasts on his horn wake up others similarly situated in other States. They come together; they compare notes; they find their condition inexplicable except as the result of conspiracy or malicious legislation. They resolve to mend matters at whatever cost. They call conventions; they rope in blatherskite editors; they make the welkin ring with their tale of wrong. After this has gone on for some months it begins to attract the attention of the industrious and rational. The noise increases; the industrious and rational get frightened and begin to issue pamphlets, and make speeches, and call conventions too, and in a few months more the "craze" subsides. The leaders turn bookagents, insurance agents, or assistant editors, or drummers for patents, and the world goes on as before. This is very much the history of the Granger craze, the greenback craze, the Powderly craze, and others. They are all plans for getting hold of other people's money without working for it, and none is more fascinating than the plan of being able to make purchases with worthless currency. There is an appearance of fairness about this which tickles a crazemonger, and he enjoys frightening property-holders, who have probably often refused him a loan or pressed him discourteously for a board bill.

A NEW CORRUPT-PRACTICE LAW.

So far as we have observed, Minnesota is the only State which has enacted a corrupt-practice law during the present legislative year. This raises the number of such laws in this country to nine, the other eight being in New York, Massachusetts, California, Missouri, Colorado, Michigan, Indiana, and Kansas. Of these, as we have pointed out on previous occasions, by far the most comprehensive and stringent in their scope are the statutes of California and Missouri. These are, in fact, scientific adaptations of the English corrupt-practices act of 1883 to American needs, and if they were sufficiently sustained by public opinion, there can be no doubt that they would be effective in operation. We regret to say that such is not the case with either of them. The California law is said to be practically a dead letter, since nobody pays attention to its requirements. The Missouri law is treated with more respect, and has been moderately successful in restricting expenditures, but it has not been rigidly enforced. The Massachusetts law has been useful in giving publicity to the amount of money spent in elections, but beyond that has not amounted to much. The New York law, which requires sworn publication after election of receipts and expenditures by candidates only, not by campaign committees, is of little or no account. The Kansas law, while simple in its requirements, has been successful in diminishing expenditures and in restricting corruption. The laws of Michigan, Colorado, and Indiana are very inadequate, and the results attained by them are inconsiderable.

The law which Minnesota will test in its next campaign and election is in many respects an excellent one. Next to the laws of Missouri and California, it is the most carefully drawn of the nine. It requires sworn publication after election of all moneys received and spent by candidates and committees, and places maximum limits to expenditures in all cases. These limits are fixed in the same manner as in the Missouri law, that is, on a ratio based upon the number of voters, as follows: For 5,000 voters or less, $250; for each 100 voters over 5,000, and under 25,000, $2; for each 100 voters over 25,000 and

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under 50,000, $1; and for each 100 voters over 50,000, 50 cents—the number of voters to be ascertained from the number of votes cast for all the candidates for such office at the last preceding regular election. The schedules of the Missouri law are the same, except that the amount allowed for 5,000 voters or less is, under that law, only $100, instead of $250.

The provisions for enforcing the Minnesota law are copied mainly from the Missouri law, and permit the candidate receiving the next highest number of votes to that cast for the successful candidate, at any time during the latter's term of office, to make application by affidavit to the Attorney-General to bring an action to have him ousted from office on the ground of violation of any of the terms of the act. Such application must be accompanied by a bond of $1,000 as the means of paying possible costs for which the State may be made liable under the suit, and the Attorney-General must begin the suit within ten days after the application is filed. In case of refusal of the prosecuting officers, the contestant may bring suit in the name of the State, but at his own expense. If the charges are sustained, the defendant is to be ousted from his office, and that office is to be awarded to the plaintiff, unless the latter be found guilty of some violation of the law, in which case the office is to be declared vacant, and is to be filled either by appointment or by a new election.

The law is amply specific and stringent to secure honest elections by making impossible the corrupt use of money without exposure and punishment, provided there be in Minnesota the public opinion necessary to compel its enforcement. Unless that opinion exists, the law will not help matters. It must be confessed that the public mind has not yet been aroused to the importance of this question. The politicians everywhere know that they do not incur much risk either in refusing to pass such laws or in violating them after they have been passed. Then, too, few communities have the machinery or organizations which are necessary to insist upon the law's enforcement. A league was formed for the purpose in Massachusetts a few years ago, but nothing has been heard of its work since. Candidates very seldom are disposed to contest in the courts the success of a rival, for the reason that in most instances a legal investigation is in danger of revealing unlawful practices on both sides.

In New York city an admirable agency exists for the enforcement of a thoroughgoing law in the Good Government clubs. These, by making it their business to collect evidence and to bring suspected violators into court, could make such a law a veritable terror. The politicians scent this danger from afar, with their habitual vigilance, and consequently refuse to take any chances. Whenever the Platt majority in the last New York Legislature got sight of a measure converting the present State law into a statute which might be made effective in practice, they showed it no mercy. No less than three such measures were defeated in the lower house. This is the best testimony possible that a good law, fearlessly and thoroughly enforced, would be a deadly enemy to corruption in elections; and it ought to lead to an awakening of public interest in the subject. No law would be complete for New York which did not cover nominating conventions as well as elections, for it is in those that the money is used which the bosses of both parties collect as the "price of peace" from the corporations.

OUR FOREIGN RELATIONS LITERATURE.

It is a very proper rule at the State Department not to publish despatches bearing on pending complications so long as there is any danger of such publicity embarrassing the negotiations. Many of these documents are never printed at all. While, therefore, the volume of 'Foreign Relations' just sent out gives no hint concerning some questions still under discussion, the despatches contain details of events of varying interest that have taken place within the last year. At some of our legations the same question arises year after year. It is always the old dog in a new doublet. For example, there is usually an unspeakable Turk who emigrates to the United States, becomes naturalized, and immediately returns to his native heath, claiming freedom from Ottoman sovereignty on account of his acquired American citizenship. Similar cases often occur in Russia, and, less frequently, in Germany. It is usually found, upon examination, that American citizenship has been acquired, not with the intention of living in the United States, but solely for the purpose of returning to the native land as a "Civis Romanus," claiming exemption from military service as well as immunity from the operation of inconvenient laws. In such cases this Government is not disposed to uphold these new-made countrymen or to extend to them the protection of the flag.

It is to be hoped that Buffon's maxim, "The style is the man," is inapplicable to our envoys. Wellington's despatches compelled admiration even from their modest author, but the despatches of our ministers will probably not give so much satisfaction to their own composers. A few are excellent. Some are characterized by "decent debility." Others are so very remarkable that one wonders why the gentlemen who wrote them so badly ever thought themselves specially fitted to represent their country abroad. The two following sentences display little regard for the ordinary rules of construction or of grammar:

"Bands of music . . . during the afternoon played ours as well as their own national airs."

"I was assured of his purpose to do what laid in his power."

These peculiarities of expression may be passed over, but here is an extract which exhibits not only a lack of culture, but at the same time a great want of courtesy in dealing with a friendly government. The commander of the United States steamer *San Francisco* had been instructed to assist our Minister, if necessary, in settling the Argüello case. The captain received his orders first and notified the Minister, who had not then received his instructions, but "assumed for my purpose with this Government on this occasion that they were something pretty perpendicular, containing a genuine American ring." He then launched forth this philippic:

"You express to me, Mr. Minister, your friendship for the United States, and the President does the same; and then you jump on us with both feet and spit in our faces. Your action in the canal matter has advertised to all the civilized world your own lack of good faith. . . . Your notice of forfeiture of the canal concession, even though it be upon a frivolous ground and one not warranted and not founded in law, not only destroys the credit of the Interoceanic Canal Company, but it is the most ghastly stab under the fifth rib of the credit of your own Government which could be inflicted by the keenest Damascus blade."

Another minister, who did not bear in mind Talleyrand's motto, "Surtout pas de zèle," was reprimanded by the late Mr. Gresham for introducing into a conference with the Turkish Minister for Foreign Affairs a comparison between the constitutions of the United States and of Great Britain, which was "not only unnecessary, but inaccurate." The Secretary of State's despatch continues:

"The Department specially regrets your saying to the Minister for Foreign Affairs, 'If your Excellency believes it would accomplish good, I will go yonder to your Padishah (the Sultan) and tell him that unless he heeds the advice of his ministers, who are trying to save the country from the devil, it will be bad for Turkey.'"

Wilkes remarked upon one occasion: "It was observed of Apelles's Venus that her flesh seemed as if she had been nourished by roses; Burke's oratory would sometimes make one suppose that he eats potatoes and drinks whiskey." But upon what meat do these our envoys feed? Sometimes our representatives drop into absolute incomprehensibility, as when a consul in Central America informed the United States Minister that certain Americans were "in limbo," meaning merely, it was afterwards ascertained, that the persons were in some danger of arrest. It is probable that these things will continue so long as the diplomatic and consular service remains a part of the spoils.

Unfamiliarity with diplomatic custom exhibits itself in many of the despatches. One minister asked the State Department whether he had authority to perform the marriage service in Nicaragua. Another envoy requested the Government of Bolivia to promote an officer of its army because of his civility in officially receiving the minister. On another occasion a minister arrogated to himself the authority to "appoint" a consul. When Thackeray was in Jerusalem, he met

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the United States Consul-General for Syria, who, forsaking family and comfortable home, had accepted the appointment in the East in order that he and his favorite dove might be near the holy places at the millennium, which he believed was at hand. He explained his interpretation of the Apocalypse to the Lieutenant of the Sublime Porte, no doubt much to that official's astonishment. He was a kind, worthy, simple man. His knowledge of Syria was limited to the information which he had derived from prophecy, but that was enough to secure his appointment as United States Consul-General. We are not entirely through with selecting foreign representatives in that way.

THE HORSE.

THE *Evening Post* prints a very virulent letter directed against the horse, which, however, is not very far astray as to the future of that animal. But it is hardly fair to say of him that he has been "found out." There never has been any concealment or pretence about him. He has for some thousands of years shared with the camel the duty of furnishing the human race with its chief means of rapid locomotion. But no one who had any experience of him ever denied his extraordinary imperfection as a machine. What with his diseases and tenderness and temper and stupidity, he has been singularly ineffective as a mode of motion. In fact, it has been so difficult to make good use of him that the management of him has been in all ages a very difficult art, acquired only by very few people. Nor has he been particularly ornamental. The ordinary horse is not handsome. To get a handsome horse, very careful breeding, followed by a close, confined, artificial, and unhealthy life is absolutely necessary. To stay handsome, a horse has to be shut up in an expensive house, and treated with as much care as an invalid, and under the best of circumstances he does not last very long. Happy is the man who has a saddle-horse in use for five years. The number and variety of known and understood diseases to which he is liable are almost comic, to say nothing of the mysterious ones which no "vet" can find out. His attacks of insanity and panic, too, are frightfully frequent, although his courage in battle is undoubted.

Why, then, has man put up with him so long? For the simple reason that there was no substitute for him for travelling or fighting purposes. He has held his own because he had no competitor. He has been thrown out of employment as fast as science produced other means of getting the work done. The railroads stopped his use for long journeys. The old stage-horse is gone. It seems marvellous now that he could hold on so long when twelve miles a day was about as much as could have been got out of him. The trolley and the cable-car are driving him out of employment as a feeder of the railroads. Now he has been attacked in his last stronghold—as an instrument of pleasure—by the bicycle. In truth, as fast as means of doing without him are discovered he is laid aside. The chances are that some means of supplying electric power to light vehicles, like the bicycle or buggy, will be discovered before long, and then he will be relegated to cavalry, polo, and hunting. Riding in a wagon behind a horse is, in truth, not unlike employing as a driver a person liable to occasional fits of acute insanity. What may bring them on cannot be foreseen. A wheelbarrow, a bird in the bush, a railroad train, or a big dog may turn any horse into a maniac and kill his owner or his family.

This long dependence of humanity on the horse has furnished a striking illustration of the adaptability of the race to inevitable circumstances. Although he fell very far short of furnishing cheap, easy, or safe locomotion, he has been treated in all ages as one of the noblest of beasts. The description of the war-horse in the Bible has been accepted for many ages as a good picture of the reality, although very few horses indeed ever answered to it. The fact, too, that he is extraordinarily difficult to use and to manage, far from causing complaint, simply developed a new art which was held in great honor and brought in much profit to its possessors. Nobody has ever blamed or depreciated the horse for being vicious, or silly, or intractable, or skittish, or obstinate, or tricky. The blame has all fallen on man for not being able to get the better of him. The good horseman who can successfully resist the horse's efforts to get rid of him has always been held in high esteem, but nobody has ever found fault with the horse for trying to get rid of him. If the horse had been looked on as what he really was, however — an industrial machine — he would have been treated as a calamity. A machine which behaved as he has behaved, would have been universally decried and shunned.

But there is one excuse for him of which the *Evening Post's* correspondent makes no mention, but which accounts for some part of his failure to progress in historic times. His size and peculiarities of digestion have made his close association with the more cultivated portion of the human species impossible. He has consequently been cut off from the advantages enjoyed by the dog, which everywhere shares in household life, has become man's friend and companion, and coöperates intelligently in some of the work of the world. This is largely due to the fact that the dog is able to enter the dwelling-house and lie by the fireside and live in constant and familiar intercourse with his master and his family. The horse, on the other hand, is relegated to the mercies of one of the lowest classes of the community—the hostlers, or grooms, or teamsters—who, as a rule, tyrannize over him, and suppress or discourage rather than develop his intelligence. In their hands, in fact, he is exposed to all the blighting influences of slavery. The life he leads under their rule, combined with the unhealthiness of the abodes in which they keep him, would brutalize man himself.

To show the importance of this we have only to look at the horse under conditions of life similar to those of the dog, as in Arabia. There he grows up in the tent or at the tent door, among the children, and although he does not join in the family life as intelligently as the dog, the owner's care and companionship have made him far more sociable than the European horse. The "runaway," or panic, is unknown among Arab horses, and so is what we call "vice"—that is, bits of deviltry intended to mar his usefulness. He is gentle, tractable, ready to serve and do his best, and is in such sympathy with his master that he is not afraid of anything which does not frighten his rider. As matters stand, the cheap horse, with few good points, seems doomed. The costly good-looking horse will probably last long for hunting and cavalry, and great pains will be taken to breed him. The demand for cavalry will always be great, as long as the art of killing remains in such high esteem. No charging machine will ever be invented, but it is a question whether scouting will not be done far more effectively on bicycles than on horses. In that sort of service bottom and swiftness are what tell, and in these the horse as compared to the wheel, is "nowhere." But we must not discharge the horse without recalling the great part he has played in the work of civilization, and the number of glorious fields on which he has laid down his life side by side with his master. The epitaph on the Duke of Wellington's Waterloo charger has much suggestion in it:

> "God's humble instrument, though meaner clay,
> Must share the triumph of that glorious day."

"MIDSUMMER NIGHT'S DREAM" AT SMITH COLLEGE.

NORTHAMPTON, MASS., June 17, 1895.

THE readers of the *Nation* may remember that in June, 1889, it gave a brief account of the "Electra" of Sophocles as presented in the Greek by the Senior class of Smith College. Every June since then the graduating class has given a play for the double purpose of entertaining its friends and affording a definite expression of a somewhat uncommon interpretation of the relation between art and science in education. These plays have all been managed by the Senior class. The money for the necessary expenses has been contributed by the members of the class, and the business connected with it carried through by a committee appointed for the purpose. The conduct of these plays has been looked upon as a valuable experience in administration, apart from the æsthetic discipline gained by the actors or the æsthetic culture shared by the class at large with the public.

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Besides the "Electra," three of these efforts have had a distinct value for the interests that they have embodied or for the training that they have required. In 1890 the "Spanish Gypsy" of George Eliot was given; in 1892, Browning's "Colombe's Birthday"; this year, June 14 and 15, Shakspere's "A Midsummer Night's Dream." This work was undertaken with a profound sense of its delicacy and difficulty, but with an equally profound conviction that it is possible to interest students in giving, and audiences in hearing, something better than Hasty Pudding plays or adaptations of fourth-rate French comedy. From the beginning, the departments of elocution in the college and the director of the play earnestly emphasized the desirability of making the performance as little spectacular and professional as possible, and of rendering prominent the nature and poetry in the play. The result richly justified their confidence. The play was successful at exactly the points where it was hoped that it would be. Its beauty, refinement, variety, humor, and pure poetry were adequately represented and throughly appreciated. One clever critic of the modern drama declared that it had convinced him that Shakspere ought always to be acted to be understood, and that he had received his first satisfactory demonstration that Shakspere was really a great constructive playwright. Perhaps the committee of the class and their counsellors, Miss Peck and Mr. Young, would ask no more adequate recognition of what they were attempting for both students and audience.

The presentation embodied several interesting departures from stage tradition. The costumes were designed and made almost entirely by the students themselves. They were studied as carefully as possible to be suitable to their wearers and conformable to the historic setting. The cuts in the play were made also with a view to the peculiar circumstances of the presentation. In the third scene of act ii. a very beautiful tableau was introduced of *Oberon* bending over the sleeping *Titania* as the fairies retreat into the distance after lulling her to sleep by their song and dance. In the fourth act *Theseus* and his train appear after a gradual sunrise and through real trees introduced for the sake of a more natural effect than the one commonly produced at this point, where the lovers, in the broadest daylight, lie undiscovered at *Theseus's* very feet through several long speeches. After the departure of the royal train *Puck* is discovered in the balcony outside the palace. This arrangement was carried out by Samuel Phelps, but has not been used in this country before. The final scene of the play was left to the fairies and to *Puck*. The shadows and the fairy blessing on the house and its owner were first in possession, and then the Della Robbia face and figure of *Puck* were half revealed in the glimmering light for his charming epilogue. So it was hoped that the sprite-like, dream-like, other-world element might be last and most abiding.

Throughout the performance, the grotesque and the clownish were used only as foils to the more delicate and romantic suggestions of the text. At the moment of *Titania's* deepest infatuation, the attendant fairies *Peaseblossom*, *Cobweb*, *Moth*, and *Mustardseed* were represented as beautiful and interesting. They danced about the figure of *Bottom*, fitting expressions of *Titania's* heart and mind before her eyes had suffered their "hateful imperfection." The acting was far less amateurish than might have been expected. All the fairy train were beautiful suggestions, reminiscent of Botticelli, made possible by drilling for months in Delsarte gymnastics. Even the hackneyed passages were impressive and poetical. As for the mechanicals, they were the strongest part of the play. They never once suggested women in disguise, and from *Bottom*, with his remarkably clever "business" and original interpretation of his office as a fussy vulgar, to the "under-study" dog, were exquisitely mirth-provoking.

In reviewing such an effort as this a number of points need consideration. In the first place, the performance is a monument to the practical financiering of the students. The sum of money at their disposal is limited by the faculty to $900. This fact is further memorable as an indication of the democratic spirit fostered by the entire work. It is intended to represent the whole class, and as fully and impartially as possible. The poorest student has as much interest in it as the richest, and may be chairman of the executive committee. It is further noteworthy in giving some other medium of expression for the student experience than that found in the purely mental or academic exercises customary at the close of a college course. It is most seriously conceived, most seriously carried out, and whether successful or not from the point of view of the public, considered most remunerative by the students. From the point of view of the public, I think it may be said that such a play under such conditions gives as pure a form of entertainment as can be imagined, and affords indefinite suggestion with regard to the limits imposed by the present dramatic conventions. The success of this performance was due to the enthusiasm of the actors and to the insight and untiring efforts of Miss Ludella L. Peck and Mr. Alfred Young. X.

DURHAM DOCK LABORERS AND PITMEN.—I.

ENGLAND, May 10, 1895.

IT is commonly said in the North of England that what Durham thinks to-day the rest of England will think when it wakes up; and certainly Newcastle, which is in many ways the capital of the North, seems to be taking, from a political point of view, the place which Manchester held under the leadership of Mr. Bright. It is the centre of that thickly populated district of old Northumbria which has undergone such strange vicissitudes; which was Christianized by Columba, Aidan, and the Venerable Bede; which was ravaged and laid waste by William the Conqueror; which for centuries was debatable land, the scene of continual inroads and repulses between the Scotch and English; and which finally towards the end of last century sprang, by the help of steam and the increasing need for coal, into wonderful prosperity.

For, on the Tyneside, natural facilities abundantly encourage the production of wealth. There is a large supply of iron ore; there are almost limitless resources of coal for smelting; and there is a magnificent river-way. With such advantages it is not surprising that Messrs. Armstrong and scores of other ship-builders should have chosen this site for their works, or that from one dock alone —Tyne Dock—as much as 27,000 tons of coal should daily be shipped abroad. Both sides of the river from Newcastle to North and South Shields are indeed so crowded with workshops, ship-yards, and their attendant populations that the whole district seems little else than a suburban district of another metropolis. Trains run almost every quarter of an hour throughout the day from Shields to Gateshead, from Tynemouth to Newcastle, and are as densely crowded as the Underground in London or the overhead railways in New York. The people in consequence are as quick and nimble-witted as the city-bred Londoners; though, because of the stronger element of Norwegian blood in their veins, or because of the more invigorating nature of their work and the nearness to strong sea-air, they have no want of backbone such as is said to arise from life in the enervating South.

In one of the parishes that border on the Tyne it was the writer's lot to spend two years of his life. Possibly no spot in England would have been so suitable a *point d'appui* for studying the social and economical problems which concern the industrial classes. In St. Mary's Tyne Dock there are no gentry, in the ordinary sense of the word, excepting the three resident clergy. This is unfortunately the case in most of the mining districts of Durham, for the smoke and the coal-dust have compelled landowners to move south. The population is between seven and eight thousand, who earn wages—(1.) as employees of the North Eastern Railway Company. This class includes engine-drivers, stokers, guards, porters, trimmers, teamers, shunters, plate-layers, and workmen; Dock officials, clerks, and policemen. (2.) Pitmen and men connected with the coal-pits of Boldon, Harton, Whitburn, and St. Hilda, which undermine the whole of the district including the town of Shields itself. (3.) Seamen, seagoing engineers, firemen, and the miscellaneous floating population of casual laborers, locally called "tag-rags," who appear, no one knows whence, to earn half a day's pay by unloading the timber-ships, and then disappear as suddenly as they have come.

Of Class I. it may be said that they are the aristocracy of the place. The N. E. R. is the great landlord and the chief employer of labor. It is the aim of all who are not already employed by this company to get their names into its books. Next in order of social precedence come the seagoing engineers and the chief hewers in the pits. The ordinary sailors and firemen, who are away from their homes for longer or shorter periods, are reckoned last upon the list.

From the point of view of wages, one section of Class I. is probably better paid than any other unskilled laborer in England. These are the "trimmers." Their work is to pack the coal in the holds of the ships as it is shot down from the huge "jetties" which run out into the Dock. It is most important, lest the cargo should shift, that no inch of waste room should be left between the coal and the sides and deck of the ship. But this means heavy shovelling for the "trimmers," in dark holds which they have to light with farthing candles; hot and stuffy work in the dust-laden atmosphere, which is bad when the cargo is coal, but worse when it is coke. In cramped positions, for they often have to shovel with scarcely a foot of room between the coal and the deck, standing knee-deep or half lying upon the rough lumps, this is about as parching and tiring work as can well be imagined. "Trimmers" wear several thicknesses of rough blue-black cloth shirts, for the danger of catching cold after sweating is great, and naturally the thirst which follows is a snare to many. They work in gangs of eight, over whom they choose a foreman or "crow," as he is called, to arrange their work, to see that coal is teamed down from the "tops" or "jetties" as it is wanted, and to re-

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ceive and divide the pay. This is settled according to a fixed tariff per ton, and, as I have said, the trimmers are well paid. When the Dock is in full working, the average wages per head is rarely less than £3 per week, and often it is more. The work goes on day and night, excepting Sundays, throughout the year, the men changing their shifts every fortnight. The day shift is from six A. M. to five P. M. and the night shift from five P. M. to six A. M., though naturally in contract jobs there is some overlapping. Men dislike the night shift, not so much because of working in the dark as because their sleep during the day is never so refreshing as at the natural time. Neither do wives like the night shift. In addition to the nuisance of having a husband in bed all day, for whom the house must be kept quiet, there is no small danger that the men will prefer the comfort of a public house in the early hours of the morning, and will come home later in the day very much the worse for whiskey. One public house, which has a commanding position exactly opposite the Dock gates, boasts that its rent is paid by takings before six o'clock in the morning. On a cold morning, before he opens his doors, the owner is careful to have 500 threepenny glasses of gin filled and ready to be consumed. If, however, the "trimmer" avoids the drink danger, he often becomes exceedingly well-to-do. He owns his house and garden, sends his children to the higher-grade schools, and frequently takes his wife and family into the country for a fortnight in the summer. The N. E. R. gives privilege tickets at a quarter of the ordinary fare to all its servants, and this enables them to travel cheaply and easily over all parts of the system.

The "teamer" is frequently a son of a "trimmer," who looks forward to being made a "trimmer" himself some day. His work is to knock out the bottoms of the coal-wagons over the tips, and shoot the coal down into the ships. This is a more dusty employment still, for the jetties, being high up, are exposed to the wind, and, on stormy nights, to driving snow and rain. The teamers also are paid according to the tonnage they team, but at a lower rate; and their wages range from thirty-five shillings to two pounds a week. They, too, of course, are subject to the changing day and night shift.

The boys who bring the coal-wagons from the "field" to the jetties, and take them back again empty, are called "bank riders." When a train of coal-wagons has been left in the "field" by an engine, little more steam-power is needed to bring five or six wagons, as they are needed, to the various "tips" a mile away. The bank rider unlooses so many wagons as he needs, is given a start by a tiny pilot engine, and then steers his trucks along a series of inclined planes, backwards and forwards by means of his brake, to the particular jetty which needs his coal. When trade is brisk, it not infrequently happens that a cargo is ordered from an inland pit for a Swedish railway, perhaps, or the gas-works at Rouen, is dismissed from the pit-mouth within twenty-four hours after receiving the order, is shipped the same night by bank riders, teamers, and trimmers, in common tramp steamers, and, within a week of leaving its deep bed in Durham, is driving a train in Upsala or a gas-engine in Normandy.

Men who spend their lives in this fashion you would expect to find strong and muscular. Their work in the open air in all weathers is healthy and invigorating. Their pay enables them to feed on the best of food, all the wives bake their own bread, and the demand for home-grown beef is very great. And indeed their physique is very striking. A large proportion are more than six feet high, with enormous shoulders and chests, forearms like a leg of mutton, and massive legs. These are almost always Northumbrians or Tynesiders of long descent, whose fathers first came to our shores in Norse Viking ships. But the largest men are not always the best workers in the cramped holds, and in the great trimmers' strike of twenty years ago many Southerners of inferior physique and lesser build from Norfolk and Suffolk were taken into employment, and have held their posts ever since.

Without being skilled mechanics, these men are far more intelligent and educated than most laborers. They have to exercise their brains in computing the amount of coals a ship will carry, and in driving bargains with the shipowners, who are men of every class and nationality. They are brought into touch, through the widening influence of a large dock, with many larger interests and varied ways of thinking. They have large cabins in the dock-yard, where their shovels are housed and their food is left by the children who bring them their hot dinners, and where they themselves sit in the intervals between work. Here they play whist and dominoes, or read the sporting and religious papers, and receive the clergy, who come one day in every week to give lectures and instruction. They have their Union and their temperance society, and are exceedingly generous to members in misfortune. Religiously they belong to every shade of thought. Romans, Anglicans, Baptists, Methodists, Congregationalists, and Freethinkers are all strongly represented. Some of them are local preachers among the Wesleyans, some officers in the Salvation Army, some Spiritualists. But the life in common tends to make them think much and discuss the questions of the day; while lectures on Shakspere given by a Baptist minister were carefully followed. Not infrequently the lecturer is heckled on all kinds of topics, religious, social, or political; he is asked, for instance, to justify the sovereignty of the Queen, or to say which came first into the world, an egg or a hen. This is in most cases, of course, the reflection of the Radical journals, which are almost universally read; and it must be said that until they understand how closely imperial interests affect their own livelihood, there is little in their local surroundings, except the Church, to make them Conservative. W.

LEOPARDI'S HOME.

RECANATI, May 8, 1895.

As our century falls into silence, we distinguish at least two Italian voices, of very different notes, that have gone forth from it into many lands, and seem likely to be listened to by a long posterity. One voice, Manzoni's, speaks a clear, wholesome message, abounding in wit, in love of the elemental human lot, in piety; the other voice, Leopardi's, sounds all the stops of despair, passing from pity to scorn, and from scorn to bitterness, but always beautiful, like the song of a hermit thrush. And the world, obeying an instinct which lies deep in the heart of man, has come to pay more attention to Leopardi than to Manzoni; for the genial author of the 'Promessi Sposi' and of the Catholic hymns furnishes delight, perhaps even consolation, but he does not answer, at least for our doubting, inquisitive generation, questions which every serious man must some time confront. To submit reason to dogma (to the dogma formulated by St. Thomas and encrusted with the superstitions of the subsequent six hundred years), to deny science, to close one's eyes to the amazing contradictions of our existence—all this has become for honest thinkers well-nigh impossible, and they naturally do not turn to Manzoni for enlightenment. His great achievement lay not in his philosophy, but in his pictures of the life round him, and we may enjoy his romance, as we enjoy any other beautiful work of art, without quarrelling with him for not making it philosophic. Fiction has become so sodden with social, political, religious, medical, or other propaganda that we can reverence Manzoni all the more that he refused to turn his novel into an ill-disguised tract.

But it is because Leopardi, whether in his poetry or in his prose (and in both he was a master), spoke out the doubt which consumed him, that his works have gone into many lands, and that he is held as the representative of that pessimism with which so much of the thought of our age is saturated. He at least gave one answer to the problem of life—a grim and terrible answer, yet one which, for reasons not here to be discussed, has been prevalent in these later decades. The caprice and injustice of destiny, the overwhelming realization of evil, the perpetuity of sin and pain—in a word, the apparent impossibility of reconciling the individual with the universe—left him but one solution, the preferability of annihilation. We think of another soul, Spinoza, equally impressed by this immense discrepancy between the individual and the infinite, and, remembering Spinoza's ecstasy at being a mere atom of infinity, we understand how temperament—that very fate against which Leopardi inveighed and which to Spinoza was God—determines our view of life. Leopardi was no whiner, and therefore it is that now, nearly sixty years after his death, new books about him appear every year, and that whatever concerned his personality has been carefully gleaned. His voice, intensified by rare genius, is the voice of those that suffer, or fail, or despair, a voice akin to that of Ecclesiastes, who summed up the pessimism of the Hebrews. And just as sorrow or pain enters sooner or later into the experience of every one, so at some time Leopardi appeals most intimately to many hearts. Even while the healthy soul knows fortitude and resignation to be indispensable, it cannot always forbear grief or stifle the sigh of anguish.

But for those who never have taken Leopardi thus seriously, his remarkable career, almost without parallel in literature, would more than justify a pilgrimage to his home. Born in 1798, of a noble family, at eleven years of age he had outstripped the utmost learning that the priests of Recanati could give him; at fourteen he had read the entire body of patristic literature in Latin and Greek; he learned Hebrew, German, French, English, and Spanish by himself; at twenty-one he had achieved more in poetry than any Italian since Petrarch; and thenceforward by the discerning few he was appreciated. But their appreciation brought him little solace and no money, so that to the end of his grievous life (he died in 1837) he hardly subsisted on the scanty stipend given him by his father, added to the irregular sums he earned by hack-work from the booksellers, and to the bounty of one or two friends. Poverty has so often been the comrade of genius that we should not lay stress on it in Leopardi's case, were it not an indica-

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tion of family relations which go far to explain his abhorrence of Recanati. Leopardi's father, Count Monaldo, was rich, as wealth was measured by the nobles on the Adriatic coast, and yet he allowed his son only twelve *scudi* (or dollars) a month, although that son was an invalid, diseased in nerves and spine, requiring every comfort to make his physical existence barely tolerable. Count Monaldo's niggardliness has been much debated, but I have yet to find proof that it sprang from want of affection for his son; it seems more probable, on the contrary, that, being quite unable to understand Giacomo's genius, and dreading his anti-clerical opinions, the father wished to force Giacomo to stay at home, where his heresies could be smothered. Certainly the plea that the Count could afford no more than a beggar's portion will not persuade any one who has seen the Leopardi palace at Recanati.

On the other hand, the poet's invectives against his surroundings must be taken with much reserve. That he had no congenial companionship at Recanati is undeniable, but that the place itself or the neighboring country would suffice to explain his pessimism will be argued only by those who, like Taine, try to explain every genius by the acre it happens to be tethered in. As well pretend that Shakspere drew *Hamlet's* pessimism from Warwickshire, as that the beautiful country around Recanati caused Leopardi's pessimism. And as for lack of intellectual companionship, was Burns, then, so fortunate, or Carlyle at Ecclefechan? No; seek Leopardi's secret—if what is so patent can be called a secret—in his diseased nerves and spine, in the restless, insatiable mind unsupported by an adequate physique! Nature is as beautiful on the hills he haunted as she ever was in Arcady.

From Ancona a slow train takes you in less than an hour to the village of Porto Recanati, on the very margin of the Adriatic. Thence, by an excellent high-road, you drive in an hour to Recanati itself, which is built along a high ridge, and looks most picturesque with its old walls and towers and vast communal palace. The road winds among very fertile fields, every inch of which is cultivated. The backs of the curving hills are now deep with grass or wheat; in the lower fields the grain is almost ripe, and endless processions of mulberry-trees, trained in goblet shape, are festooned with vines. Innumerable flowers grow along the wayside; the road itself is bounded by hedges of white hawthorne, just blossoming; the farmers' houses are overrun with wistaria, or decked with little plots of purple iris. The peasants seem well-to-do, working, men and women together, in the vineyards. Some of the women still wear the traditional peasants' costumes, and the ox-carts, drawn by white oxen, have pictures or flowers or religious emblems painted on them. There is nothing in all this to suggest the approach to the shrine of pessimism.

The town, which we enter from the east, has narrow streets and, except the communal palace, no noteworthy buildings. In the chief square there is an admirable marble statue of Leopardi, by Panichi; it gives the large, intellectual head, the deep-set eyes, the pinched cheeks, and pained expression common to his later portraits. Eighty years ago, in these very streets, his fellows jeered at him. Five minutes distant from the square, near the western wall, is the Leopardi palace, a large, rambling brick structure. Beyond the entrance, instead of the customary courtyard, there is a marble "atrium and peristyle," completed, as a tablet informs us, by Count Monaldo for the admiration of posterity in 1798—the year of Giacomo's birth. Flights of marble steps lead to the second story, and the whole produces the effect of old-fashioned elegance tempered by a tendency towards the sepulchral.

The footman of the present Count unlocks the door leading to the Leopardi library, which consists of five rooms, connected by a corridor along the eastern side of the house, and thus gives the appearance of a series of vast alcoves rather than of separate rooms. The walls from floor to ceiling are filled with books—27,000 in all—the larger part bound in vellum, and arranged according to topics. The largest hall contains cabinets with many of the poet's manuscripts and other mementoes of him. There is also a cabinet of medals, bric-à-brac, and antiques, formed by his father, and his father's study. In these quarters, certainly not to be equalled in many private houses anywhere, young Leopardi grew up. The number of boys of genius who have had nearly 30,000 books under their father's roof must be exceedingly small, so that on this score Leopardi was not to be pitied—unless, indeed, we are to pity those into whose hands fortune places the means of their undoing. That Leopardi could ever have been robust was impossible, but that he speedily wrecked by over-study his frail physique is also unquestioned; and in this rich library the means of wrecking himself were at hand.

The windows of the rooms look towards the east, but the view is cut off by a row of bare, ugly houses, in one of which dwelt the coachman's pretty daughter, of whom he wrote under the name of "Nerina." He used to go out but seldom, an old servant who remembers him told us, and then alone. But even a short walk would bring him to one of the many points whence he got the views which he has described. If he looked eastward, he saw the rolling hills and rich valleys, and the Adriatic beyond; a little to the north, three miles away, he saw the dome of the shrine of Loreto, and then Castelfidardo, Osimo, and half-a-dozen other hill cities; westward, across great gulfs of green, he saw the Apennines. How easily the disciples of Buckle could account for a joyous poet reared amid this environment!

But most interesting, after the sight of his home itself, is that cabinet which holds his manuscripts, all neatly written, only the poems showing frequent emendations. Here is a large copy-book entitled "The Philosophic Essays of Giacomo Leopardi," and dated 1809, when he was eleven years old, and another, "The History of Astronomy," with the date 1813. In his case such titles were not vain, for there has probably been no other juvenile mind, except Mill's, which worked with the accuracy and vigor of the best-trained mature intellects at an age when most boys are, fortunately, still playing at leap-frog. We know how near Mill came to disasters in both physical and mental health, and how long it took him, through a life of intellectual action, to throw off the gloom which that early abnormal strain fixed upon him; but Leopardi had no companionship to draw him out of himself, no great movement into which he could throw himself, and, worst of all, no constitution to endure the immense labors he engaged in. Towards the end of his life he protested that disease had had nothing to do with the pessimistic principles he professed; but psychologists to-day, familiar with neurotic conditions, will not heed his protest. They will wonder that a mind so tormented preserved to the last its remarkable powers rather than that its thoughts took the tinge of his suffering.

A frank biography of Leopardi is still lacking, but it is safe to say that it cannot be written by one who has not seen Leopardi's home. As your rickety carriage drives down the steep hill towards Castelfidardo, passing rich crops and innumerable wild flowers on either side, and you think of the palace and vast library, you will feel how personality lords it over environment. You will feel, too, that Leopardi's career, irrespective of his doctrines, gives no comfort to those easy optimists who blink facts. Prometheus on the rock, Laocoön in the toils—you have their modern instance in Leopardi. "Great men, great nations," says Emerson, "perceive the terror of life"; a life like Leopardi's is not to be confuted, but to be understood, before its example of terror can be bravely faced. W. R. T.

Correspondence.

THE JOURNAL OF THE BOARD OF TRADE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I think the students of history throughout the country will be glad to know that "a circular recently issued by the Historical Society of Pennsylvania to its members asking contributions or a guarantee to the amount of $2,000 per annum for five years for the purpose of obtaining a full copy of the Journal of the Board of Trade from the original in the English Public Record Office," mentioned in your issue of the 13th, was so promptly responded to that the work has been begun.

Very respectfully yours,

F. D. Stone, Librarian.

Historical Society of Pennsylvania,
Philadelphia, June 13, 1895.

Notes.

Macmillan & Co. will soon publish 'Studies in Economics,' by Dr. William Smart; 'Mother and Daughter: An Uncompleted Sonnet Sequence,' by the late Mrs. Augusta Webster; and 'A Son of the Plains,' by Arthur Patterson.

From Duprat & Co. we have what appears to be the first of a series of volumes on the private libraries of New York. It is entitled 'The Library of Robert Hoe,' and has been prepared by O. A. Bierstadt, assistant librarian of the Astor Library. The book has been most expensively and beautifully made at the De Vinne Press, being printed on vellum paper, with 110 admirable illustrations, taken from MSS. and books in the collection described. There are some 150 manuscripts, the illuminated portion being unsurpassed in this country; and these are discussed in the first section. Louis XII., Matthias Corvinus, Lorenzo de' Medici, Maximilian I. and Charles V., Diana of Poitiers, and Anne de Beaujeu are some of the famous former possessors of them. There are five vellum Petrarch MSS., and the Oriental collection is also striking. Next follow the Incunabula, among which we shall specify only the *editio princeps* of Homer (1488); Printed Books of Hours; Aldines, with the Virgil of 1501, the first book printed in italic type, and a volume containing Melanchthon's autograph; Elzevirs, 200 in number, including imitations; French books, embracing a Montaigne with Voltaire's autograph; Eng-

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lish books, among which we note Blake's 'Milton,' one of three extant out of the total twelve, a fine array of Bewicks, and an extra-illustrated Life of Stothard. The last section is given up to a miscellany in which a Testament inscribed to Bonaparte by the Widow Beauharnais, and bearing his autograph also, is a precious "human document." Eleven Groliers are here described and many exquisite bindings. Some of these treasures will perhaps find their way eventually into the consolidated New York Library. The present edition is limited to 350 copies.

Mr. Selden L. Whitcomb's 'Chronological Outlines of American Literature' (Macmillan) has been intelligently modelled upon F. Ryland's corresponding work for English Literature, and even contrives a column for the latter beside those devoted to Foreign Literature and the contemporary events in biography and history. The tables thus composed have an obvious convenience for students of any given year or period, and to a certain extent they have been indexed for the American portion by a list of the more prolific authors, with their works displayed beneath in order of publication. The same space, however, would, in our opinion, have been better given up to a complete index of every personal name, journal or magazine mentioned on the left hand (American) page. In this way we should have been directed to Poole's first 'Index to Periodicals' (1848), the founding of *Graham's Magazine* and the *Tribune* (1841), and of *Niles' Register* (1811), the beginning of Appletons' 'New American Cyclopædia' (1858), and of Dr. Lieber's 'Encyclopædia Americana' (1829), and the like. With these reserves we have only praise for the author of so great a labor.

The latest issue in the "Globe" series of Macmillan & Co. is a reduced edition of Lord Berners's translation of Froissart's Chronicles from the hand of Mr. G. C. Macaulay. When it was first published, 1521–1525, Lord Berners's Froissart was the most important work of modern history that had yet appeared in England, and to its influence has been attributed with much plausibility the noteworthy increase of interest in historical literature in the next generation. Lord Berners, while by no means the best prose-writer of his time, had certain peculiar qualifications for translating Froissart. He was deeply interested in history, and hardly less so in the chivalric romances, while as a nobleman and a courtier he was familiar with the language of chivalry so far as it survived at the court of Henry VIII. As a result his translation, although inaccurate from both ignorance and carelessness, reproduces the atmosphere and flavor of Froissart with a success far beyond that attained in the painstaking but prosaic version of Johnes. Mr. Macaulay has reprinted about one-third of the whole in the form of selected passages, maintaining the continuity of the narrative by brief summaries of the omitted portions. The majority of the omissions occur in the second part, where Froissart fell into great diffuseness. The selections are given as originally printed, save that the spelling has been modernized, misprints and faulty translations corrected, and the geographical names reduced to consistent forms. Mr. Macaulay has supplied a glossary, but has neglected to provide an index, which could have been made with very little trouble with the help of that in Johnes's edition.

'Dr. Judas' is the allegorical and not altogether satisfactory title, based upon the treachery of the drug, of a book better described alternatively as "A Portrayal of the Opium Habit," by W. R. Cobbe (Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.). It is the apparently genuine autobiography of an intelligent neurasthenic who, during an attack of illness, became a victim of the insidious sedative, which, introduced as a servant, speedily became master. Unlike many confessions, this portrayal does not indirectly allure to vice. Everywhere is the directest denial of De Quincy's dictum as to the "gates of Paradise." It is the portal and anteroom of hell, physically and to the spirit. This is an interesting psychological contribution, which intelligently, if somewhat floridly, displays the sufferings of the wretched souls whose escape from the toils is nearly impossible. The author claims to be well now, to have had the chains removed. There is no appearance of advertisement about his work, but he joyfully announces that the redemption of the most thoroughly enslaved is possible.

From Theodore Presser, Philadelphia, we have a volume of 423 pages devoted to 'Celebrated Pianists of the Past and Present'—a collection of 139 biographies, with portraits, by A. Ehrlich, who has also written a similar volume on 'Celebrated Violinists.' It is with some curiosity that one looks over the formidable list of "139 celebrated pianists," and one is hardly surprised to find that the word celebrated is taken in a very liberal sense. The book could have been made more valuable to students if it had included lists of compositions for the piano in each case, in place of rambling general remarks on the life of each composer and his works in all departments; but for those who wish a convenient bird's-eye view, Ehrlich's volume may be commended. The book is nearly up to date, Paderewski, Rosenthal, and Sauer being included. But why are Josef Hofmann and Anton Hegner omitted?

A 'Memoir of George Higinbotham, an Australian Politician and Chief-Justice of Victoria,' by Edward E. Morris, has been published by Macmillan & Co. Some interest attaches to such a career as is here depicted, because similar careers are common in our own country. The subject of the biography was a reporter, journalist, legislator, lawyer, Attorney-General, and Chief-Justice. But the political controversies in which he was engaged, although lively enough, are of as little interest except to students of political development as the battles of the kites and crows. Some constitutional questions were settled, but they have little bearing on the fundamentals of government. The biographer has slight literary qualifications for his task, and the life that he describes was on the whole of no more than local interest.

From Félix Alcan, Paris, we have the second series of the collected essays of the late Émile de Laveleye, which is to be followed by a third and final volume. M. de Laveleye was an extremely facile writer, and his writings are almost numberless; but he was less profound than prolific, and we think that few of his works will be found to have permanent value. Nevertheless, he treated many subjects out of the common line in an agreeable and suggestive manner, and those who have the knack of browsing judiciously in economic pastures will find among these essays not a few that will repay attention.

The income tax appears to be for this country a closed chapter of history, but in France the demand for its imposition, in a progressive form, is incessant and irrepressible. Those who are interested in the literature of the subject will find the arguments for the tax stated in a volume of speeches by M. Godefroy Cavaignac, published at Paris by Armand Colin & Cie.

M. Jules Payot, who has written largely in the philosophic reviews, and who made himself more widely known last year by his book on 'L'Éducation de la Volonté,' has just published a new study entitled 'L'Éducation de la Démocratie.' Although he agrees with the neo-Christian school as to the insufficiency of science and as to the necessity of a moral faith, he breaks with such leaders of that school as M. Melchior de Vogüé and M. Paul Desjardins by placing this necessary faith outside of dogmas and revealed religions, and basing it on the notion of human solidarity. Men need to be taught, he says, that altruism is a far more intelligent egoism than any merely personal egoism can be. Children should receive an *éducation altruiste pratique:* they should be brought in direct contact with the social injustices, with labor, and with poverty, but they should also be shown and made to understand the benefits which have come to the race through civilization. In this way, he thinks, they may be sheltered from the seductions of revolutionary socialists, and be brought to the conviction that the world, as it is, is going on very well, developing itself and gradually growing better.

M. Albert Soubies has already deserved well of all students of the stage, and he has now again won their gratitude by an account of 'La Comédie-Française depuis l'époque romantique, 1825-1894' (Paris: Fischbacker; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer). The book itself is interesting, and in it can be traced the whole movement of the drama in France during the greater part of this century—a period second in brilliancy only to the age of Louis XIV. Even more important are the appended tables in which we have lists of all the plays acted at the Théâtre-Français in the past seventy years, with the number of performances of each, year by year. We have thus exhibited the relative popularity of Corneille, Molière, and Racine as the Romanticist movement rose to its height and then fell away, and as the Realistic movement in turn followed it. M. Soubies counts carefully for us the number of times Corneille has been acted by the Comédie-Française in these seventy years: it is 1,090, while the plays of Racine have furnished 1,623 performances. As is fit and proper, the Molière total is more than twice the combined totals of Corneille and Racine: it is 6,689.

Dr. Coues's remark, in his recent letter regarding Sergeant Floyd, that "his grave has been washed into the river," is likely to mislead. The exact truth is shown in the following words in a private letter by Mitchell Vincent, written last April: "My duties as a civil engineer in 1867-'8 upon the Sioux City and Pacific Railroad took me within forty feet of the grave of Charles Floyd. In 1857 his bones had been removed about two hundred feet back on the bluff, a small portion of the bones having dropped into the river before removal. The grave [pit] at that time was about two feet long and a foot wide, depressed about six inches below the surface of the ground. I intended to have the grave filled and put in better shape, but my work taking me away before the frost was out of the ground prevented my good resolutions bearing fruit. I did not see the spot again till last year, when all traces had been obliterated by the trampling of horses and cattle."

The success of Durham University's petition to the Crown for permission to confer degrees

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on women students has apparently stirred anew the zeal of other friends of the higher education of women. At a recent large and representative meeting of the Oxford Association for the Education of Women, it was resolved by a majority of more than 4 to 1 (115 to 26), "that it is desirable that women students who have complied with the statutable conditions as regards residence and examinations should be admitted to the B.A. degree. . . ." As it has, we believe, always been contended by both Oxford and Cambridge that an act of Parliament is indispensable for their conferment of degrees on women, the Association further resolved to memorialize the University at once in favor of such action, and to circulate a petition for signatures among graduates of the University. The Oxford Association having hitherto been divided in regard to the policy of active agitation of the question of degrees for women, this fresh departure shows an unexpected growth of opinion.

In this connection it may be noted that the Association of Irish Schoolmistresses, which appealed some time ago to the Board of Trinity College, Dublin, for the admission of women to lectures and degree examinations, has been duly notified that Trinity College has no power, under its present constitution, to recognize women students; furthermore, the august board warns the Association that it would "oppose any act of Parliament conferring such power *unless* the measure affected Oxford and Cambridge." The claim of Trinity that her statutes are based on those of the ancient English universities, which still serve her for models, has naturally called forth a last word from the Irish petitioners, who suggest that the board has ample warrant for at least admitting women to college lectures and examinations.

An English correspondent writes that Charlecote is to be opened to visitors this summer, "quite free, or, at all events, almost." The Lucy family have hitherto been chary of admitting visitors to their home, so that this long-coveted permission will be welcome news to those Americans whose wanderings this year include a tour through Shakspere's country.

—The movement initiated at the Congress of Philologists and Archæologists in Philadelphia last winter for the establishment of an American School in Rome, similar in its main purposes to the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, has met with gratifying success. A large managing committee was organized, under the direction of Professors Hale, Warren, and Frothingham, and an appeal for financial support brought out prompt and generous subscriptions, so that the committee at its first meeting, held in this city in May, was enabled to make arrangements for opening the school in the autumn of the present year. Professor William G. Hale, of the University of Chicago, will go out as Director, and Professor A. L. Frothingham, jr., of Princeton University, as Associate Director for the academic year 1895-96. The object of the school, as set forth in its regulations, is "to promote the study of such subjects as Latin literature, as bearing on customs and institutions; inscriptions in Latin and in the Italic dialects; Latin palæography; the topography and antiquities of Rome itself; the archæology of ancient Italy (Italic, Etruscan, Roman) and of the early Christian, Mediæval, and Renaissance periods. It will furnish regular instruction and guidance in several or all of these fields, will encourage original research or exploration, and will cöoperate with the Archæological Institute of America, with which it is affiliated." The school will probably occupy rooms adjoining those of the recently established American School of Architecture, in the Casino dell' Aurora of the Villa Ludovisi on the Pincian Hill. The successful establishment of a School at Rome will be gladly welcomed by all who are familiar with the admirable work which has been done in the past twelve years by the Athens School, and the stimulating influence it has exerted on Greek scholarship in this country. The two schools will coöperate with each other, and it is provided that a student in either school may study for a part of the year in the other. The Archæological Institute has granted to each School, for the year 1895-96, a fellowship of $600, and each School has established from its own resources a second fellowship of the same value. The school in Rome offers, further, a fellowship of $500, contributed by friends of the school, for the study of Christian archæology. These fellowships are open to Bachelors of Arts of universities and colleges in the United States and to other American students of similar attainments. Students may join the School for either a whole or a part of the scholastic year. No charge is made for tuition. Applicants should address, for the Greek School, Prof. John Williams White, Cambridge, Mass.; for the Roman School, Prof. A. L. Frothingham, jr., Princeton, N. J.

—The Harvard Law School recently paid a tribute to Prof. Langdell, who has just completed his twenty-fifth year as Dean of the School, by publishing a memorial number of the *Harvard Law Review* in his honor. It now announces that, in behalf of the graduate members of the school, it will celebrate Prof. Langdell's anniversary in Cambridge on the 25th inst. The occasion promises to be a notable one for both the character and number of the guests who are expected to be present, among whom are Chief Justice Fuller, '55, and Mr. Justice Brown, '59, of the Supreme Court of the United States; Secretary Olney, '58; Mr. Justice Holmes, '61, of the Massachusetts Supreme Court; and Joseph H. Choate, Esq., '54. The Association has been fortunate enough—such is the potency of Prof. Langdell's reputation—to induce Sir Frederick Pollock, who is probably the most agreeable, as well as one of the most learned, writers on the law now living, to come from England to deliver the memorial oration at Sanders Theatre. His address is to be at twelve o'clock, and at its close there will be a banquet in Memorial Hall, at which President Eliot, Prof. Langdell, and the invited guests are expected to speak. Tickets to the banquet, $2.50 each, may be procured, by members of the Law School Association only, of P. S. Abbot, 220 Devonshire Street, Boston, Mass., or in Cambridge, at Austin Hall, on the day of the meeting.

—Mr. Paul Leicester Ford has reprinted the enriched 'Notes on Virginia' from the third volume of his competent edition of the Writings of Jefferson. Even the fortunate owner of a copy may regret that only a hundred have been made up; and on another side he could wish that the index had been more elaborate, as a commercial edition might have justified. After the bibliography proper, Mr. Ford makes allusion to the controversy to which the 'Notes' gave rise, and the handle they furnished to the writer's political adversaries; and cites one tract wholly directed against the 'Notes' for their irreligious tendency. We think he might have done the same by Walker's 'Appeal,' which was at least half inspired by Jefferson's disparaging view of the capacity of the blacks, and which had the distinction of being submitted to the House of Delegates by the Governor of Virginia as an incendiary document in 1830. On p. 181 Mr. Ford refers in a foot-note to the Abbé Grégoire's incidental refutation of Jefferson on the same point, and on p. 179, apropos of the sweeping imputation of mathematical (or geometric) incapacity, it would have been in order to refer to Jefferson's well-known letter to the colored astronomer, Benjamin Banneker, from whom he received an almanac in answer to this passage in the 'Notes.' The terrific indictment of slavery which, more than any other consideration, made the prudent Jefferson hesitate about publishing the 'Notes,' did good service after his death as ammunition for the abolitionists; and it is curious enough that a work so freighted should have been, in Mr. Ford's words, "perhaps the most frequently reprinted book ever written in the United States south of Mason & Dixon's line." Only two editions, however, were issued south of that line, and both at Baltimore, by one publisher, and in 1800.

—Nothing is more curious in his whole treatment of the subject of slavery than the way in which Jefferson passes, from a humane caveat against a general conclusion derogatory to the natural capacity of the blacks, to a complete adoption of such a judgment, in the same paragraph. He reproaches his countrymen with never having viewed the red race (which he has already pronounced equal in capacity to the white) and the blacks "as subjects of natural history"; then advances it, "as a suspicion only," that the blacks, who were either created or have become distinct from the whites, are inferior to the latter "in the endowments both of body and mind"; then, as a lover of natural history, viewing "the gradations of all the races of animals with the eye of philosophy," thinks himself excusable for wishing "to keep those in the department of man as nature has formed them"; then, while wishing to "vindicate the liberty of human nature" by emancipating the blacks, is "anxious also to preserve its dignity and beauty." What hinders? Why, the perverse refusal of the whites to view them as subjects of natural history even in a state of freedom. Hence, when freed, the slave "is to be removed beyond the reach of mixture," lest he "stain the blood" of his late masters. Yet while the reprinting of the 'Notes' was most active, at the beginning of this century, Jefferson's opponents in his own State were openly charging him with keeping a negro mistress and having a mixed posterity, and Mrs. Trollope caught up the tale thirty years afterwards and gave it to the world, with a rhetorical change, as too notorious to hazard contradiction. "Povera e nuda vai, filosofia!"

—An entertaining book has recently been published in Berlin, by Frau Anna Seuron, who was for many years governess in the family of Count L. N. Tolstoy. The intimate knowledge which she acquired of the celebrated author's character, and of his relations to his wife, family, and the peasants, she has expressed with a frankness that will startle those who feel unqualified admiration for Count Tolstoy as a reformer and apostle of the lowly. Frau Seuron remains one of his devoted admirers, though the views which she announces, and the deductions which the reader cannot fail to draw from her anecdotes, would appear

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logically not to permit of that attitude. She has shown the Count in a light which other writers have not had the opportunity of seeing, or about which they have thought it best merely to hint. This in no way discredits her assertions, which bear strong internal evidence of their truth. Frau Seuron declares that Count Tolstoy is not a harmonious, simple character, that he is not a genius, a true vein of precious metal in the rock, but a patchwork, a bit of mosaic, whose cracks and faults have been so well daubed over that they appear, to many people, to form a smooth, united surface. He is no anchorite, convinced of the nothingness of the world, who has conquered himself and has turned his back on it in disdain, but a man who has carried his vanity over into the "new life" which he has fashioned after his own pattern. When he finds that his sins and his principles cannot be reconciled by any amount of discussion, he turns a somersault from his point of view, withdraws to his study, and begins, with all the more zeal, to set down in writing his laudations of the elementary principles of life which he has just outraged. After firmly refusing, for more than a year, to touch meat, he allowed his family to persuade him to eat poultry, though he maintained that he intended to adhere to his rules. But the attentive observer would hear the clatter of knife and fork in the dining-room during the night, and the next morning the cold roast beef which had been left on the table would be found half devoured. Tolstoy never confessed to his sin of weak indulgence, but Frau Seuron declares that she is sure of her facts. He also indulged surreptitiously in a smoke, after preaching against it. She concludes that, while the Count might be a temporary fanatic for abnegation, he was not built for a saint.

—As a proof of this she alleges his treatment of his own peasants, and of the poor and of beggars in general. His pockets were usually very tightly buttoned, even when a few kopeks would have relieved the distress. She accuses him of being indifferent, and says that momentary, strongly overpowering impulses of miserliness often made him hard-hearted. On such occasions he justified himself in his own eyes by his theories as to the evil of money and the blessings of poverty. For example, when the peasants of his village, Yasnaya Polyana, had but three spades among them, and lacked all the implements wherewith to cultivate the land, he refused to help them to buy the necessary tools. He said that "precisely this lack of implements made them lend to each other, and that was an act of helpful brotherly love." "When the Count, who was constantly talking and writing about brotherly love, talked with a begging peasant, the despot of the sixteenth century awoke in him. It was as if abysses lay between them. An evil look came into the Count's eyes, and the petitioner went away shaking his head." When the Countess Tolstoy, anxious for her own future and that of her children, wished to exploit his works, the Count vehemently protested against money, in his usual strain. But when the Countess persisted, and carried on affairs too openly, under his very nose, he "cut a somersault," went out, and chopped wood. He worked in earnest at such tasks as carting and distributing manure. He did not change his dress for dinner, and brought the odors in with him; as he has a strong taste for perfumes, and did not stint himself in the use of them, the combination of smells sometimes required strong nerves on the part of those present. Frau Seuron takes a very practical view of his arduous labors; they replace, she says, the riding and hunting which he has forsworn. His healthy, muscular frame requires a great deal of exercise, and he takes it in this form because it suits his health; and that is all there is to the fad of hard labor for the salvation of the soul.

—Mantchuria is a much more valuable possession than it is generally regarded, judging from the description of it in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for May, by the Rev. John Ross, D.D., for twenty-two years a resident in the country. In treating of the physical characteristics he remarks on the curious fact of the infrequency of earthquakes. Although in Japan, but a short distance away, they are of almost daily occurrence, he has known of only three slight shocks. The soil of the vast plain is composed of the rich loess, formed and continually renewed by the disintegration of the underlying rock. Its remarkable fertility is shown by the fact that the "tall" millet produces eight hundred fold, and the "small" millet is reputed to produce eight thousand fold. Wheat and barley come to maturity so rapidly that a second crop of some other kind can be sown on the ground and reaped in the same season. Gold is found in many places, but the present dynasty has steadily refused to permit mining, for two reasons—a superstitious fear of altering the configuration of the earth, and the lawlessness of the miners. Accordingly, even the search for gold, silver, or copper is penal throughout the province. There is one gold-mine near Kirin where "the miners have for generations made a little kingdom of their own and defied the Government." In many places, also, good coal crops out of the ground, but the people dare not touch it, though the extracting iron ore is barely tolerated in certain localities. The population, especially of the southern part, has increased very rapidly within the past twenty years, and Dr. Ross estimates it at 25,000,000. This is a far higher figure than most authorities give. The 'Statesman's Year-Book,' for instance, says 7,500,000. "On the great plain" villages and hamlets, each with its little grove of willow-trees, are so numerous and planted so thickly that you have scarcely left one behind before you enter another. In a radius of three and a half miles Dr. Ross found, by actual count, seventy-five villages, "the largest with 10,000 people, the smaller with a few hundreds." The inhabitants, who are nearly all agriculturists, are very largely immigrants from the neighboring Chinese provinces. Their condition is more comfortable than that of any other Asiatic people. They live "to a great extent, on their own small properties. The taxation is probably the lightest in the world. Food, fuel, and clothing, though coarse, are abundant." The northern part of the country nearest to the Russian boundary is still very sparsely settled. It has the rich soil, however, which characterizes the rest of the Mantchurian plain, and it will apparently not be long before it is filled with an industrious population. The principal industry of Mukden, a city of 300,000 inhabitants, is tanning. An excellent map accompanies this unusually interesting and suggestive paper, which closes with a brief sketch of the history of Mantchuria.

—Mr. G. W. Smalley signalizes his change of status from American correspondent in England to English correspondent in America by reprinting another collection of letters written to the *Tribune*, together with an account of his interview with Bismarck, first published in the *Fortnightly Review*. He names the volume 'Studies of Men' (Harpers). It consists of sketches and appreciations of twenty-five prominent contemporaries, mostly English, concerning whom not much information is easily accessible to the mass of readers, and it is therefore likely to enjoy a wide popularity, especially as it is written in an easy, flowing style, and abounds in gossip and anecdote. Particularly interesting are the articles on Lord Bowen, Tyndall, Jowett, and Froude. But although the book has many elements of popular success, and is above the level of even the better class of newspaper work, it will hardly gain recognition as a genuine contribution to literature. It has the distinctly pronounced ephemeral character that marks even the most finished productions of journalism, and it is not free from the minor blemishes which Thackeray satirized in his pictures of "Our Own Correspondent." Mr. Smalley delights to let his readers know on what terms of intimacy he is with the great ones of the earth, and abounds in such phrases as "One of the foremost men in English public life told me," etc., or, "I used sometimes to say to Tyndall"; at other times he patronizes them with the most charming condescension, as when he says: "There are points in which one would have liked Tennyson to be other than he was; so are there in all men." He is oracular and omniscient, but occasionally confesses his inability to resolve a knotty question, as when he candidly remarks: "But is it absolutely certain that the Emperor William Second is a Napoleon? Is he even a Frederick? He may be both; but how is one to know?" As a general thing, however, he has the courage of his opinions, as when he decides that "Froude was something more than the most accomplished prose-writer of his time." On points of etiquette he is great.

McMASTER'S HISTORY.—I.

A History of the People of the United States, from the Revolution to the Civil War. By John Bach McMaster. Vol. IV. D. Appleton & Co. 1895. Pp. xiv, 630. Maps.

THE fourth volume of this well-known work begins with the repeal of the British Orders in Council—a tardy measure in the hope of preventing war—and ends with the admission of Missouri into the Union in 1821. The war of 1812, problems of the Southern territory and national boundaries, the development of the Western country, and the efforts of Congress to control or direct the expanding energies of the people, offer Mr. McMaster a wide field for the exercise of his characteristic research and powers of description. In smoothly flowing periods he recounts the events of war and politics, almost quieting criticism by his ability to collect and arrange facts, and lulling the reader into over-confidence by his relation of incident and his judgments of social movements. It is impossible to agree with him in all matters, and his work suffers when compared with that of Mr. Henry Adams, whose 'History' covers a part of the same period. There is a lack of connection in Mr. McMaster's work which leaves the impression of his having failed to grasp the full relation of the national events he describes.

The war of 1812 offers few points of interest, as it is a record of official incompetency and individual error, which blundered into rather than won a peace. Very few of those in power

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knew exactly why hostilities were declared, and certainly Madison was ignorant of the cause, or, what was worse, interested in maintaining a fiction of his own creating. Entering into an offensive war, without preparation other than an excess of proclamation, it required a long series of disasters to teach the prudence and the necessity of securing peace. If Madison was in error, his agents were incompetent. As at the beginning of the Revolution, a number of men who had seen service in a former war were appointed to command the motley collection of troops constituting the army; and, as in the Revolution, experience proved how injudicious, almost fatal, such a standard for selection was. Too old to be energetic, and too jealous and independent to act in concert on a definite plan of campaign, these superannuated leaders blundered, surrendered, or fled, and set an example their followers were only too willing to imitate. The memory of the severe lessons taught by the Revolution had passed away. Militia, enlisted for a short term, was believed to constitute an army, and the strongest element in this fluctuating body was the lawless and unrestrainable volunteers from Kentucky and Tennessee, where the war spirit burned most fiercely. What could be expected of a force engaged to serve till "after a battle"? What could be looked for from a commander whose sole recommendation had been a slight service nearly forty years before, and some political activity in the interval? The confidence with which the war was undertaken contrasts painfully with the results attained at great cost; but the experience was wholesome both in internal matters and in external relations.

Mr. McMaster could not pass by the stupid and often cowardly conduct of individual incursions, for it would be absurd to speak of campaigns where the intentions of each general seemed rather to neutralize the efforts of his fellow-general than to utilize their aid. It is a dreary record of error. Hull, Van Rensselaer, Smyth, Dearborn, and Wilkinson, not one of whom can command sympathy, pass by in the melodrama, and leave Harrison and Jackson to win political preferment on the strength of some very dubious military achievements. The inefficiency of the land force was offset by the brilliant record of the naval force on the lakes and the ocean. Too much praise is given to Perry's victory on Lake Erie, for he was nearly defeated by the conduct of Elliot, his second in command; and much more could have been said of the failure of the military features of the war. The hearts of the people were not in the contest, and New England was in almost open opposition. As an opportunity to work off the ferment of agitation in the new States of the West, the war is interesting, for there is no telling what form of internal dissension might otherwise have been provoked. The spirited efforts after the sacking of Washington to construct fortifications on the coast contrasted strongly with the general apathy of the people in organizing active resistance. It was a pretty enthusiasm that led all trades and occupations to go to the trenches, or sail up the Hudson to work at the new earthworks in picnic form; but it never passed beyond the stage of prettiness. An English army, by no means formidable, could march without meeting any resistance into the heart of a country supporting a million and a half whites, plunder and destroy at will, burn the Capitol, remain nearly five weeks on shore, and retire at leisure without encountering so much as a check. National impotency could hardly be more clearly demonstrated. The war proved the possession of true naval power; it also proved as true an incapacity to conduct operations on land, and it made many political reputations which the country might better have been spared.

If ever a wholesome lesson was dearly learned, it was this realization that a policy of foreign connection and entanglement was destructive of internal peace and development. For a quarter of a century the partisans of France in the United States were set against the favorers of Great Britain, and the war of 1812 only marked the extreme use of a victory of one faction over the other. The cost through embargoes and depredations on commerce was enormous and unmeasured. It led the country to the verge of a division into two separate nations, for sectional feeling was intensified. The war policy failed dismally at the North; and in the South it fostered a spirit of conquest and unwarranted aggression, with all the vulgar glitter and accompaniments of cruelty and greed to tarnish the repute of victory. It is easy to admire Decatur forcing the Barbary States to recognize rules of justice; but it is impossible to applaud Harrison and Jackson in their severe punishment of Indians —guilty of murder, it is true, but guilty under the strongest provocation and sense of injustice.

Civil matters were also passing through a crisis. Government was bankrupt; Gallatin, the ablest manager of its finances, and the least of a shifty and speculative "financier," had laid down his office, and left it to his successors to restore solvency by means doubly questionable in their neglect of public faith. Political parties reflected the chaotic condition of national affairs. The "Gerrymander" in Massachusetts and New Jersey, and the rise of unscrupulous managers of party, supported in influence mainly by office, and seeking to bend State and Federal Government to their own purposes, led to intrigues which were responsible for the incapacity to provide the means to meet emergencies, such as defence of territory, or to take action upon questions of public policy. The Republicanism of 1816 differed little from the Federalism of 1798; and this reversal of party is so concisely told by Mr. McMaster as to give little impression of the magnitude of the change. The measures which had defeated John Adams and the Federalists now became the mainstay of the Republican party, but with a difference: the popular influences which had been dreaded by Jefferson and his followers became more active than ever, and added one more element of danger to the welfare of the people.

In any history of the people of the United States their experiments in banking and tariff legislation would naturally play a leading part. Mr. McMaster devotes three chapters to these subjects, and they will repay a careful study. The refusal to renew the charter of the National Bank, which expired in 1811, created an opening for State banks, incorporated under laws so lax as to give no check to fraud or over-issues of notes. The desire to obtain charters for these too irresponsible institutions led to offers of certain financial advantages to the State, and could hardly have ended with that legitimate return for a valuable franchise. The men who passed the acts of incorporation were human and open to "influences"; and it is impossible to believe that legislators were not corrupted. No State escaped the infection of "wild-cat" banking; but it was in the West and South that the greatest abuses existed. The war only increased the dangers by giving an excuse for suspension of specie payments by the banks throughout the country, and by encouraging the expansion of issues and the circulation of paper down even to the copper money of the day. Mr. McMaster tells us much of the practices of banks and other companies, of the issues of individuals and counterfeiters, of the bold trickery and barefaced dishonesty of those who were bent upon gulling the community with their "rag money"; but so much is not said of the effect on prices, of the widespread ruin caused by the uncertainties of all values, of the lowering of public as well as private morality by the temptations to defraud, and of the spirit of gambling and general speculation introduced into every line of trade and industry. It is not too much to say that the action of members of Congress in voting increased compensation for themselves was due to this element of corruption. The vast movement of population from the older States to the westward was greatly stimulated by the disturbances introduced through financial disorder and interruption of trade. The sharper was fostered and encouraged at the expense of the honest, and even the sense of honor was sapped, for the banks refused to resume of their own accord, and had to be compelled to that act of common honesty. While the bubble of paper money existed, there was apparently great prosperity and boldness in undertaking new schemes. It was only when the day of reckoning came that the hollowness was realized.

FAST AND THANKSGIVING IN NEW ENGLAND.

The Fast and Thanksgiving Days of New England. By W. DeLoss Love, Jr., Ph.D. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895. Pp. vii, 607.

THIS handsome volume from the Riverside Press deserves the hearty recognition of students of New England history. With a breadth of treatment scarcely indicated by its title, the writer has examined the Puritan attitude towards days of religious observance, and has traced the development of American fasts and thanksgivings with much picturesqueness of detail and great antiquarian learning, setting forth the relation of these appointments to the more significant vicissitudes of colonial and national life, the firm persuasion of immediate dependence on divine providence from which they sprang, and the political animosities which occasionally appeared in their designation.

Dr. Love shows that the number of holidays established in England before the Reformation led to their lax observance by the people, while customs tolerated at the greater ecclesiastical festivals robbed them of much of their spiritual significance. The Tudor sovereigns limited the number of these days, and diminished the strenuousness of statutory requirement as to the observance of such as remained; but neither governmental nor popular thought made much distinction in sacredness between Sunday and other holidays, and all such seasons were alike marked by boisterous sports and general laxity. It was to rescue Sunday from what they deemed misuse that the early Puritans rejected the observance of other sacred times. Yet, though the Puritans always set their faces against saints' days, at the beginning of Elizabeth's reign the leaders of the party, especially those who had come under the influence of the Swiss reformer, Bullinger, would gladly have commemorated the principal events in the life of Christ, and a proposition to limit English

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churchly holidays to these "feasts of Christ" failed of approval in the Convocation of 1562 by only a single vote. The Anglican insistence on much of the ancient calendar, and the radical influence of the Genevan school, soon led the Puritans and Separatists to reject all regularly recurrent days except Sunday. This was the attitude of the founders of New England.

Yet, though opposing recurrent seasons of religious observance believed by them to be of human appointment, no men of their age were more ready to find the hand of God in the adverse or propitious circumstances of their private and corporate life, and none insisted so strenuously—though all religious parties did so to some extent—that special successes or hindrances demanded particular recognition. Hence the founders of New England brought with them the occasional, non-recurrent thanksgiving and fast; and they looked upon these days as primarily of churchly appointment, though intimacy of connection between church and state speedily led to the designation of such seasons by civil authority. This governmental designation ultimately brought about the transformation, save in rare instances, of the occasional thanksgivings and fasts for special causes, into annually recurring days of civil appointment such as the earliest Puritans would have rejected.

Dr. Love thus points out that the annual fast and thanksgiving, having primary reference to the harvest and to general blessings, so characteristic of New England life, involve an essential modification of the original New England conception. This departure was made early in colonial life. The famous harvest feast of 1621 had no religious character, and was not a thanksgiving in the sense in which early New England understood such a day, however unconsciously it may have foreshadowed the practice of this century; but the annual thanksgiving had become the usage of the Plymouth church by 1636. As a regularly recurrent after-harvest day of governmental designation, however, the thanksgiving first appears to have established itself in Connecticut, and about 1649. In Massachusetts the annual appointment was a decade later in obtaining similar fixity. The yearly spring fast of civil designation likewise first took root in Connecticut—in Dr. Love's opinion not far from 1659—but was resisted in Massachusetts till about 1694. Regarding it Dr. Love declares: "It is altogether certain that it is a day which, even at its best estate, the colonial fathers, in their intelligence and piety as Puritans, would not have tolerated."

The author's summary of the history of these seasons is worth quoting at length:

"It may be said, in a general view, that the fast and thanksgiving days of Massachusetts have passed through three periods to their present development. The observance which the forefathers brought from old England was religious, having its motive in the doctrine of Divine Providence, and this was maintained with vigor down to the establishment of the provincial government. With the adoption of the system of annual appointments, particularly as to the fast days, came in an observance having its affiliations with the season of the year the events of which it chronicled, and this was characteristic through the Revolution. After the organization of the federal government, the observance—though retaining the semblance of the first period and operating through the system of the second—was infused with the political spirit, which has been, on the whole, dominant in it to the present time. The fast day especially may be characterized as successively religious, historical, and political."

Dr. Love shows incidentally that the colony of New Netherland had its occasional fasts and thanksgivings of civil appointment, in addition to a considerable observance of the churchly holidays, conforming in this respect to the practice of the Dutch home land; but that no annual thanksgivings existed under the rule of the Dutch or of their English successors. Similar occasional days, due to English example, were observed in the colonies to the southward, though the custom nowhere developed into the spring and autumn holidays characteristic of New England. This widespread recognition of the propriety of special fasts and thanksgivings led the Continental Congress to recommend days of both descriptions as the exigencies of the Revolutionary struggle seemed to suggest. The same usage was continued by Washington and Congress after the establishment of the Federal Government, a national thanksgiving being held in 1789; and another, by recommendation of Washington, without Congressional action, in 1795. Between the latter date and 1815, when Congress and Madison recommended a thanksgiving for the end of the war with Great Britain, five national fasts were designated. Again in 1841, on account of the death of President Harrison, and in 1849, by reason of the cholera, special national fasts were proclaimed. The civil war was prolific on both sides with fasts and thanksgivings for special occasions. And, as recently as 1876, by appointment of President Grant, the centennial anniversary of the Declaration of Independence was designated a special thanksgiving for the blessings of the first century of national existence.

Since the beginning of the present century the later form of the New England thanksgiving—the annual autumn festival—has won its way rapidly outside the region of its origin. Such a day has been appointed in New York since 1817, and other commonwealths so embraced the observance that by 1858 all but six of the States had adopted it. It was therefore a natural development that led President Lincoln to nationalize the custom by appointing a thanksgiving of this character in 1863. Dr. Love draws the conclusion that "the present national custom may be said to be the appointment of an annual harvest thanksgiving, and such special fast or thanksgiving days as the circumstances of sorrow or joy may seem to warrant."

If the yearly thanksgiving of New England has thus grown into national acceptance, it has been otherwise with the annual fast. Begun as a religious observance, it has had an unlike fate in the two States where it earliest appeared. In Connecticut the desire that Episcopalians should not be annoyed by the appointment of a fast in the week succeeding Easter led Gov. Huntington, himself a Congregationalist, to set the day on Good Friday in 1795—a custom that has continued unbroken from 1797 to the present. This alteration of time has gradually modified the spring fast in Connecticut, so that it is now largely observed by the churches as a memorial of Christ's passion. In Massachusetts, on the other hand, its religious significance well-nigh disappeared, until the efforts of Govs. Russell and Greenhalge, with those of religious and historical societies, resulted in its abolition in 1894, and the substitution of the Nineteenth of April as a spring holiday without claim to religious observance. Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont still follow the ancient custom; but, in Dr. Love's opinion, their "future action would seem to be reduced to a choice between the example of Connecticut or Massachusetts."

In reviewing the main argument of Dr. Love's volume, we have passed by much of interesting detail which his studies present—an example of which is his account of the attempt of those in authority under the Andros Government to force upon unwilling New England a day of humiliation on the anniversary of the beheading of Charles I. Such an episode throws a flash of light upon one of the causes of the unpopularity of that régime. But we cannot omit to mention the calendar of more than seventeen hundred fasts and thanksgivings observed between 1620 and 1815, or the careful bibliography of six hundred and twenty-two sermons delivered on such occasions before 1816. What labor such a catalogue of days involves is best understood when it is remembered that they are only scantily noted in early legislative journals, so that, as Dr. Love declares, there are "more outside of the Colonial Records than in them." Of the six earliest Massachusetts proclamations known to Dr. Love to survive in their original printed form, only one is mentioned in the records of the Colonial Government. These early broadsides afford the author the theme for an interesting chapter, and photogravure reproductions of the three most venerable survivors of the broadside proclamations of Massachusetts and Connecticut fittingly embellish this serious and well-nigh exhaustive study of one of the most characteristic of New England customs.

Life and Times of Major-General Sir Isaac Brock, K.B. By D. B. Read, Q.C., author of 'Life and Times of Governor Simcoe,' etc. Toronto: William Briggs. 1894. Illustrated. Pp. viii, 266.

CANADIANS, or some of them, have worked themselves into the belief that they are living "under the gigantic shadow of a rapacious neighbor," and that plots are always on foot for their annexation. This, they fancied, was the object of the McKinley Act. The suspicion, it is needless to say, was baseless. In the McKinley debates slight reference was made to the Canadian question, nor had the framers any object but protection. Canada, however, was severely pinched by exclusion from the American market, and the consequence was that a wave of the sentiment which its enemies call Annexationist and its friends Unionist passed over the border counties and swept more widely the Province of Quebec. The movement, if anything wholly devoid of organization can be so called, was the result of commercial pressure, but could not have been produced by that alone without general affinities and attractions. Commercial pressure would not produce a movement in Denmark for union with Germany, or in Holland for union with France. On the other hand, partly as a reaction against the annexationist movement, partly in response to the appeals of Imperial Federationists, there has been a lively manifestation of loyal and imperial sentiment. Stirring appeals have been addressed by the Tory Government of Canada, in elections, to anti-American feeling, and strenuous efforts have been made by celebrations of military anniversaries, the erection of monuments on battle-fields, and martial parades of the school-children, to revive the memories of 1812 and all memories adverse to closer relations with the American republic. The Life of Sir Isaac Brock, the Canadian (or, rather, British) hero of 1812, which lies before us, seems, in spite of Mr. Read's humane and polite disclaimers, to be instinct with the spirit of the hour, and to satisfy the requirements of Canadian patriots better than those of a student of history.

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However strongly convinced Americans may be of the righteousness of the War of 1812 as a revolt against British Orders in Council and impressment, there are few of us who will not acknowledge that, as an attempt to conquer Canada, which was its most attractive aspect in the eye of Clay and the War-Hawks, it was not only a military failure, but a political mistake, and retarded instead of hastening the step of manifest destiny. Canada was unhappily founded in enmity to the United States. Had the wise and noble counsels of Greene and Hamilton prevailed, and amnesty been extended to the vanquished in the Revolutionary war, Great Britain would probably have withdrawn from this continent, as her best advisers desired she should, and Canada would have been in the Union. However, before 1812 the enmity had abated. Americans had been settling on the northern side of the line; commercial interests and social affinities had been drawing Canada towards her own continent; and the attraction, had it been left to work, would have gained strength with time, and might have brought about a peaceful union. Canadians had little interest in the quarrel about Orders in Council and impressment. How unwilling they were to go to war with their kinsmen on the south of the line appears from the despatches of Prevost and Brock cited by Mr. Henry Adams in his History (vol. vi., pp. 318, 319). Those despatches complain of "the little dependence to be placed upon the militia or upon the active exertions of any considerable proportion of the population of the country"; of "a lukewarm and temporizing spirit, evidently dictated either by the apprehension or the wish that the enemy may soon be in possession of the country"; of the refusal of the militia to march, and of "a disposition to tame submission" not confined to the militia. But invasion roused the spirit of a brave and hardy population. The Canadians fought gallantly by the side of the British troops, and, by the bloody and protracted struggle which ensued, not only was the growing tendency to reunion wrecked, but in its place a hatred was implanted which three generations have hardly sufficed to uproot.

The military history of the war is intelligible enough. Raw American troops under inexperienced commanders attempted to act on the offensive against British veterans commanded by one of the best officers in the British service, and this in a country which was then thickly wooded and presented special difficulties to the invader. The natural result was a series of disasters during the early period of the war. Before its close the Americans learnt their lesson, and the balance of victory began to turn. At Chippewa a battalion of British regulars was overthrown. Lundy's Lane, the last engagement of the war, was also the bloodiest—a bloodier action, in fact, in proportion to the numbers engaged, has scarcely been fought in any war; and though the Americans retreated and their operation failed, the same stubborn valor was shown upon both sides. At Queenston Heights, the scene of Brock's victory and of his heroic death, neither the American General Van Rensselaer nor the regular force under his command appears in any way to have failed. They had almost grasped the victory. But the raw militia refused to pass the river in their support, overcome (it seems) by the sight of the wounded, who had been brought across to them as the engagement went on. The operation of physical law is hardly more certain than the ascendancy of discipline in war.

Mr. Read's materials are scanty, and, saving some details of the capture of Detroit and the battle of Queenston Heights, there is nothing new to interest us in his work. He has little to tell us of his hero. It is certain, however, that Brock was a great soldier and a very noble man. His courage was shown when he was a subaltern, in an encounter with a noted duellist, the bully of the regiment, whom he quelled by challenging him to fight across a handkerchief. But he seems to have had also the highest qualities of the commander, and to have wanted, in order to attain a splendid name, only an ampler field. He is fortunate in having had erected to his memory about the finest monument on this continent, and upon a site worthy of its beauty. But Mr. Read's description of this monument passes our comprehension. He calls it an "obelisk," and says that its style is "the simplest and purest Egyptian," and that "the proportions of the obelisk known as Cleopatra's Needle have been strictly adhered to." The monument is no obelisk, but a fluted column, with a Corinthian capital surmounted by the statue of Brock. It has nothing Egyptian about it, and, be the proportions what they may, is no more like Cleopatra's Needle than it is like the pyramid of Cheops. The grass has long grown over the graves in the battle-field which that monument overlooks; and perhaps its pediment may some day bear an inscription in which a tribute of honor to the brave men who fell on both sides will be blended with words of international reconciliation.

A Handbook of Systematic Botany. By Dr. E. Warming, Professor in the University at Copenhagen. Translated and edited by M. C. Potter, M.A., F.L.S. Macmillan & Co. 1895. 8vo, pp. 620.

CLASSIFICATION in natural history endeavors at the present day to exhibit kinships. This endeavor is justified by the modern and generally accepted view taken of species. Species, the units in all classification of living things and of things that have lived, are now believed to have been derived from preëxistent species in much the same fashion in which younger and smaller branches spring from older ones. Since the revolution in thought by which this belief became incorporated into all our science primers, it is difficult to understand how naturalists could have ever held any other view. And yet it was scarcely forty years ago that the revolution fairly began. Up to that time, naturalists, with very few exceptions, spoke of species as "fixed," and as varying only within narrow limits. The absurdity of describing unvarying species as related appears to have struck many students of animals and plants, and to have forced from them, from time to time, apologetic and explanatory utterances. To make this absurdity apparent at the present day, let us suppose ourselves in a toy-shop well filled with the different types of playthings. The Noah's arks would constitute one species, the yachts another, and the steamers still a third, all coming, perhaps, under the general head or genus of boats. These different crafts would be related to one another solely by the end or purpose of construction, and this would, of course, in the last analysis, go back to the idea in the mind of the artisan who conceived and made them. Classification of the boats would deal either with shape as expressive of fitness, or with the idea behind both shape and fitness. The classification could not represent anything like kinship, for kinship involves the conception of common descent.

Unvarying species were believed to have come down to us in parallel lines out of the past, and hence all expressions denoting relationship were mere figures of speech. And yet, incredible as it may appear, the so-called relationships indicated by the leading systematic botanists who worked on the hypothesis of the fixity of species turned out to be, in very many cases, perfectly satisfactory to the systematists who adopt the hypothesis of descent or derivation. In the great majority of instances, the systematists holding the first hypothesis had, by keen insight, gone below the superficial characters, and selected as a basis for their classification the deep characters which, in the language of the second hypothesis, are only slowly affected from generation to generation.

Every serious attempt to represent kinship under the modern view is to be treated with consideration. The modern systematist does not usually have within reach any positive historical evidence of descent. He has just about the same material at his command which was at the disposal of his predecessors, so far as the flowering plants are concerned, but he is now in possession of a vast recent accumulation of facts respecting the lower or flowerless plants. If we take the work of Professor Warming as an illustration, we shall see first the comparatively slight changes which have been made in the arrangement of the flowering plants. In general, the system suggested by the late Prof. Eichler is followed to a moderate extent. The plants having their flowers on the plan of five (the Dicotyledons), are divided into two groups —the Choripetalæ, possessing separate petals or no petals at all; and the Sympetalæ, those which have united petals. Under this arrangement, there are some curious juxtapositions. For instance, the Knotweeds, the Peppers, and the Pinks occupy successive pages; Spurges, Rue, Horse-chestnut, and Maple come close together, and so on. But all this flows from a proper disregard of a very obvious superficial character which used to cut through the Natural Orders without exciting much comment, namely, the presence of separate petals or the absence of petals. Wood-Anemone was not thrust out of the Crowfoot family just because it has no petals; it is only one of many cases which have called for a rearrangement of the groups of the families themselves. The Sympetalæ are believed to be later in their origin than the other flowering plants. Of the Sympetalæ, the Compositæ are very naturally placed at the head.

After all, that which will most surprise the reader who has not kept pace with the results of modern study of Botany is the completeness with which the kinship of the lower and the higher plants is now made out. There is hardly a break in the long line of evidence, and even these gaps are being from time to time filled up. The old dividing wall between the flowerless and the flowering plants is broken through, and the terms which are applied to the reproductive organs of the former are now applied also to the latter, whereas it was formerly just the other way. There is no saying how soon we must finally substitute in our primers of botany the word microspore for pollen-grain, and megaspore, or macrospore, for ovule; but, jesting aside, it seems as if the time could not be very far away.

Although there is much in Prof. Warming's work which cannot meet the entire approval of every botanist, it may be heartily recommended to the general reader who wishes to see for himself how far the revolution in the recognition of kinship has gone. The useful

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products of plants and the manifold peculiarities of the more curious plants are charmingly dealt with, and, under the careful hand of the translator, who has been a thorough editor as well, the mistakes are few and unimportant. It would be ungracious to call attention to the trivial errors.

Out of the East. By Lafcadio Hearn. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THIS latest contribution in book form to the solution of the problem of Japanese psychology, by Mr. Hearn, comes labelled under a quotation, with the sub-title, "Reveries and Studies in New Japan." The author, a man of remarkable mental inheritance through a mixture of blood and races, has made himself a sort of revolving photographic camera. Even to the ordinary traveller, a new world like that of Japan beyond the seaports strikes upon mind and sense like the emanations from a new sun. But to a student of Mr. Hearn's mental make-up the waves of light are, so to speak, vastly multiplied. Where the ordinary man sees, as it were, impressions through yellow glass, this author keeps his sensitized plates in the violet ray. Yet because of the very fact that his mind employs mostly but one end of the spectrum, he is apt to ignore the gamut of color and fail to see things in true white light. It is manifest, from our point of view at least, that there is a vast element of exaggeration in Mr. Hearn's fascinating description and philosophy.

Concerning his papers, numbering a dozen lacking one, mostly reprinted from the *Atlantic Monthly*, it is difficult to draw the line between those which are "reveries" and those which are "studies." He tells again the old Rip Van Winkle story, which in Japan exists in both the marine and the terrestrial form. The one selected is that of the fisher-boy, who goes beneath the sparkling waves to spend a delightful little eternity where suns do not rise and set, and where time—that element which so disturbs the calculating Westerner—is no more. From the ocean's daughters of fairy-tale the author turns to "The Eternal Feminine," to show how utterly absent from the decent and orderly side of Japanese life romantic love is, and how Confucianism, with the power of its disguised savagery, has made woman only a cog in the great driving-wheel of society. Throughout his writing, the author protests against the conclusions of scholars and the unchallengeable testimony of the language. He would have us believe that although personality is absent from speech and literature, there is a subtler and keener sense of individuality, and a finer strength of personality, in the Japanese than the Anglo-Saxon man or woman knows; yet the author's success is not noticeably visible. With all the wealth of his marvellous vocabulary, his artistic phrase, and the prismatics of fascinating philosophy, he would have us enjoy the dreamy haze of Buddhism in place of a clear perception and belief in one God, personal, real, distinct from his creation, yet in it. Even the very keenness of his sympathies with the Japanese mind helps to show us what a very thin and wavering line divides the real from the unreal, mythology from history, a stone idol from the being which it is supposed to represent. The papers in this volume make it still more easy to understand just how and why it is that Japanese gentlemen, educated in the physical sciences and in the technical processes of modern trades and machines, can still talk and write about the dragon-born Jimmu Tenno as "the first Emperor of Japan, who ascended the throne of Japan twenty-five hundred years ago." It explains clearly how even yet the overwhelming majority of Japanese believe that their Amazonian queen "conquered" Korea over sixteen hundred years ago and "made it tributary to Japan." Indeed, Mr. Hearn's latest book serves an excellent purpose in exhibiting Japanese Jingoism and the determined purpose of the military classes to retard education and keep appropriations for schools down to the lowest point, while millions are squandered on armaments and militarism is systematically nourished.

On the whole, the ablest chapter of the book is that entitled "Jiujutsu." This term, which superficial foreign observers translate "wrestling," is, in reality, the verbal exponent of a remarkable system of self-defence by apparent surrender to the one attacking. The writer, on first seeing a performance of jiujutsu, was, without being able to understand the rationale of the proceeding, impressed with the fact that the most eager and muscular young men did most quickly get the worst of their bout. A thin and rather delicate looking professor of the art very quickly "laid out" a dozen or so stalwart and rosy-cheeked youth, though in each case it seemed at first as though the master was getting mauled to death or at least to helplessness. By profoundly skilful reasoning and great felicity of statement, Mr. Hearn shows that, when awakened Japan found herself in the grip of European giants with muscles which were treaties and hands that were ships and cannon, with every power of offence in consular courts, Western insolence, and race hatred, she deliberately planned a game of jiujutsu on a national scale. She yielded again and again. She confounded all those sanguine folk who expected immediate adoption of Western dress, manners, food, and ideals. She caused woful disappointment to the men who preached, prophesied, and wrote pamphlets on "the immediate Christianization of Japan." Yet, while quietly yielding, Japan studied, thought, digested, assimilated, rejected. Now, in 1895, the whole world recognizes with astonishment and admiration that *Japan has won in her game of jiujutsu.*

Essays on Scandinavian Literature. By Hjalmar Hjorth Boyesen. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895.

THIS is not an attempt at a connected exposition of Scandinavian literature, but a series of studies of some of its separate phases among the nations that once formed the triple kingdom. Three of the essays, those on Björnson, Kielland, and Jonas Lie, are given to Norway; three others, on Hans Christian Andersen, on Contemporary Danish Literature, and Georg Brandes, represent Denmark; one alone, that on Tegnér, in some ways the most interesting of all, stands for Sweden. Ibsen, conspicuous by his absence, it will be remembered has been made the subject of a separate volume previously published.

To the essay on Björnson has been appropriately given not only the first place in the book, but more than a third of the whole number of pages. The author confesses to heroic condensation, but it is a matter for regret that, with the wealth of material on hand, his pen should not have been allowed to follow its natural tendency, since there is no book in English on Björnson. To write another essay on this Titan of the North requires no little courage, but this has materially rounded out our picture of him as he is, and we are made to realize, if we have not appreciated it before, the extraordinary part he has played. Few men in all history have exercised a greater influence upon a nation's intellectual development than has Björnson upon that of Norway. It has been everywhere paramount; not only in religion, where he has acted the part of liberator, or in politics, where, although holding no office, he has been the soul of the national movement, but in literature in all its manifestations—in journalism, in the drama, in lyric poetry, and in the novel as well. Björnson in all this is not merely a Norwegian, he is Norway. "To mention him," says Brandes, elsewhere quoted, "is like running up the Norwegian flag."

Even more interesting than the initial essay to the American reader will doubtless be that on Hans Christian Andersen, not only on account of the unique position of this writer in English literature, where he is felt to be almost a native element, but because of the wholly sympathetic way in which he is treated. The author has given us again a personal picture unmistakable in its fidelity, and a critical estimate produced with a touch no less sure. He shows us how harmless was the vanity of this most childlike of men, and how unaffected his innocence and unworldliness, yet without shirking his idiosyncrasies or sparing his foibles—and that is the charm of the essay. We feel that we have at last got hold of the real Andersen, who, although a *rara avis* of most whimsical plumage, was a personality infinitely superior to the Andersen of the autobiography.

Of the other essays in the volume, that on Tegnér, the national poet of Sweden, whom we know as the author of 'Frithjof's Saga' and 'Children of the Lord's Supper,' has probably the most enduring interest, because of the thoroughness of treatment of a most picturesque subject. It is the only time in English, so far as we are aware, that Tegnér, who in his environment was a great poet, has been satisfactorily accounted for, and has had an intelligible place assigned him in European literature in and out of Sweden. Of the remainder, the essay on Jonas Lie, whom the author predicts that London and New York will before long have discovered as one of the foremost representatives of modern realism, is important because of the personal character of much of its material. Lie has been widely translated into the languages of Europe, which is proof positive, as such things go, of popularity abroad. His tales of the sea are the best that the North has produced, and the reality and modernity of this, as of much of his other work, are undoubted. Why he has not taken firmer root among us is not quite apparent, although the author ascribes it, in part, to inferior translations.

The other essays are short; that on Contemporary Danish Literature necessarily so to hold our interest, that on Alexander Kielland apparently only from choice. The least satisfactory of them all is the one on Brandes, not, however, for what has been said so much as for what has been left unsaid, for here is a writer of whom we know far too little in English. The author of the present volume does not unqualifiedly call him so, but Brandes is in many ways the first of living critics. He does, however, associate him with Lessing, Matthew Arnold, and Taine, with the last of whom, as is pointed out, there is no little intellectual kinship. As a critic Brandes has not only gained an international fame, but, more than that, in and out of Scandinavia has deeply influenced contemporary thought.

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Many of his essays—our author notes particularly the one on Björnson—are superb pieces of critical writing, subtle, luminous in statement, striking in judgment, and replete with information. Unfortunately, in his unaffected sympathy with anarchism there is a devil lurking behind the door to discredit him at home and abroad, and he has failed of a recognition otherwise accorded him.

Prof. Boyesen has never written more clearly or convincingly than in the present essays. It is to be hoped that the future volume suggested in the preface will in good time be forthcoming.

The Rise and Development of Organic Chemistry. By Carl Schorlemmer, LL.D., F.R.S. Revised edition, edited by Arthur Smithells, B.Sc. Macmillan. 1894. Pp. xxvii, 280.

THE first edition of this book was published in 1879 and has been long out of print. A revision was undertaken by the author shortly before his death, and has been completed by Prof. Smithells, who prefaces the work with a short biographical sketch of Prof. Schorlemmer. Born at Darmstadt in 1832, Schorlemmer, at the age of twenty-one, was an apothecary's assistant at Heidelberg, where he came under the influence of Bunsen, whose lectures he attended in his spare time. Four years later, he decided to give up pharmacy, and, after a few months at Giessen under Will and Kopp, succeeded his friend and former schoolfellow Dittmar as private assistant to Prof. Roscoe at Owens College, Manchester. In 1861 he was appointed official assistant in the Owens College laboratory, and in 1874 the chair of Organic Chemistry was created for him—a position which he occupied until his death. His first important work resulted in deciding the vexed question concerning the identity or isomerism of the alcohol radicals and their hydrides, and had great influence on the development of organic chemistry. His experimental activity is indicated by the list of sixty scientific papers appended to this sketch of his life. The last fifteen years he devoted almost entirely to authorship. In 1874 his 'Organic Chemistry' was published in both English and German, and at once became a standard work. A little later he undertook with Roscoe the task of writing the now well-known 'Treatise on Chemistry,' the first volume of which appeared in 1877, and which is still incomplete. It is pleasant to know that Schorlemmer's faithful and fruitful service to Owens College for thirty-three years is to be recognized by the erection of the "Schorlemmer Laboratory" for organic chemistry by his pupils and admirers.

Organic chemistry is almost wholly a growth of the present century. At the close of the seventeenth century a division of natural substances into mineral, animal, and vegetable was recognized; and a hundred years later Lavoisier proved that vegetable bodies consisted chiefly of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen, while those formed in the animal organism usually contained, besides these, nitrogen and sometimes phosphorus. The distinction between animal and vegetable substances soon after fell into disuse, and at the beginning of this century the present division of all substances into organic and inorganic was generally adopted. The organic substances known at this time were all of natural origin, and it was believed that they were formed in the plant or animal by the mysterious agency of the so-called vital force, and that, though capable of conversion into other compounds, none of them could be artificially produced from inorganic matter or from their elements. In 1828 Wöhler prepared urea from ammonium cyanate, and thus dealt a heavy blow at the doctrine of vital force. It soon appeared that ammonium cyanate could be made from its elements, and with this discovery the first synthesis of an organic compound was complete. In 1845 Kolbe effected a simple synthesis of acetic acid from the elements, and in 1859 Berthelot solved a problem which had long occupied chemists, viz., the direct combination of carbon and hydrogen, by obtaining acetylene, C_2H_2, by means of the electric arc between carbon poles in an atmosphere of hydrogen. The significance of these syntheses from the elements lies in the fact that, since it is possible to pass from one organic compound to any other by a series of appropriate reactions, all compounds whose constitution is known can now be built up from the elements. The history of organic chemistry is in a large measure a history of the development of hypotheses concerning the constitution of compounds into the present theory, to whose adequacy, as a working theory, at least, the wonderful growth and important practical applications of this branch of science bear witness.

The subject is presented in the book before us in a thoroughly lucid and readable manner. It is, as the editor says in his preface, a piece of work which discloses "at once the breadth and depth of his [the author's] knowledge, and his ardent and disinterested love of what he was wont to term, with the pride of a disciple, 'our science.'" The results and bearings of all the most important recent researches, such as those of Fischer on the sugars, Ladenburg on the alkaloids, Von Baeyer on indigo, are clearly and skilfully stated and discussed in a very suggestive manner. Chap. ix. deserves special praise for its complete and masterly discussion of the constitution of the aromatic compounds. At the close of his account of the brilliant achievements of synthetical chemistry, the author says:

"If to-day we still cannot make morphine, quinine, and similar bodies artificially, the time is near at hand. . . . If we cannot make quinine, we have already found a partial substitute in antipyrine, and its introduction has lowered the price of quinine. Another important problem is the synthesis of the ingredients of our daily food, such as sugar, gum, and starch. . . . That the synthesis of sugar is imminent has already been stated. But it is quite different with those important parts of our food which have been called the albuminous bodies."

It has been suggested "that if ever chemists should succeed in obtaining albuminous bodies artificially, it will be in the state of living protoplasm, perhaps in the form of those structureless beings which Häckel calls the Monera. All attempts hitherto made for the purpose of producing living matter artificially have failed. The enigma of life can only be solved by the synthesis of an albuminous compound."

The enormous number of substances now included under the head of organic chemistry may well dismay the student until he learns that progress in the knowledge of their constitution and their relations to each other has been even more rapid than the discovery of new compounds; so that, "in spite of the grand development of chemistry, nay, even for this reason, a survey becomes easier from day to day." The large chapters of former handbooks treating of coloring matters, bitter principles, indifferent compounds, and other bodies, which could not otherwise be arranged in the system, and which Gerhardt called "corps à sérier," become shorter and shorter, and will disappear in course of time.

Golf in America. By James P. Lee. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1895.

IN a modest preface Mr. Lee gives the formation of the United States Golf Association at the end of last year as the *raison d'être* of this manual. His main purpose in writing it was, doubtless, to record the constitution and by-laws of that association, and the conclusions arrived at by its officers in the important question of rules. And it is, in fact, a matter of interest to golfers to be informed, as they now are for the first time in an official manner, that the playing rules adopted by the association are the same as those of the St. Andrews Club of Scotland, with two modifications only, both of which are in the nature of improvements. But Mr. Lee has gone considerably further than this, and has produced an attractive volume which contains all that is really essential to the beginner in the way of book-learning. In these days, when all the young men and maidens who are not learning to ride a wheel are struggling with the mysteries of golf, a brief account of the best methods of meeting the initial difficulties and of making the ordinary shots cannot fail of a warm welcome. Of course the tyro must not expect to drive 200 yards at once as a result of reading this or any other manual. In all probability he never will drive that distance except in his happiest dreams. But Mr. Lee's advice, if carefully conned over from time to time after a day's practice in the field, will inevitably improve his game. The trouble with the literature of the game is that it tends to become too voluminous. A great number of books have appeared in recent years dealing with the history of the game in Europe, with the peculiarities of different links, and with the prowess of distinguished performers. Nothing remains to be said on these subjects, and we think Mr. Lee might have omitted his first thirty-two pages with advantage, and confined himself strictly to American golf.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arrowsmith, R. Seidel's Die Monate. American Book Co. 25 cents.
Bain, C. W. The Sixth Book of Homer's Odyssey. Boston: Ginn & Co. 40 cents.
Balzac, H. de. The Wild Ass's Skin. London; Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Barlow, Jane. Maureen's Fairing. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Base "Coin" Exposed. Chicago: E. A. Weeks Co.
Beddard, F. E. A Monograph of the Order of Oligochaeta. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Bennet, A. R. The Telephone Systems of the Continent of Europe. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.50.
Bliss, Rev. W. D. P. A Handbook of Socialism. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Brandt, F. B. Friedrich Edward Beneke: the Man and his Philosophy. Berlin: Mayer & Müller; New York: Macmillan.
Brosé, E. de. A Modern Pharisee. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Bulwer, Sir E. L. History of a False Religion. New York: Peter Eckler.
Burgis, Edwin. Perils to British Trade. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Clark, A. C. Cicero pro Milone. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Craigie, Christopher. An Old Man's Romance. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.
Defoe, Daniel. The Life, Adventures and Piracies of the Famous Captain Singleton. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Dougall, L. The Zeit-Geist. Appletons.
Drake, S. A. The Watch Fires of '76. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Driver, Prof. S. R. A Critical and Exegetical Commentary on Deuteronomy. (International Critical Commentary.) Scribners. $3.
Duff, Conover. The Master-Knot and "Another Story." Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
En Pique-Nique. Publication Annuelle du Comité de la Société des Gens de Lettres. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Fabia, Prof. Philippe. P. Terenti Afri Eunvchvs. Texte Latin avec une Introduction et un Commentaire. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Farrar, Rev. F. W. Woman's Work in the Home. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus.
Fawcett, Millicent G. Life of Her Majesty Queen Victoria. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Feilden, H. St. Clair. A Short Constitutional History of England. 3d ed. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.35.
Field, Rev. H. M. Our Western Archipelago. Scribners.

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Flipt, Rosina.- Duologues and Scenes from the Novels of Jane Austen. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Galton, Francis. Fingerprint Directories. Macmillan. $2.00.
Gardener, Helen H. Facts and Fictions of Life. 3d ed. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Goldsmith, Oliver. The Vicar of Wakefield. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 30 cents.
Grahame, Kenneth. The Golden Age. Chicago; Stone & Kimball.
Griffith, Dr. J. P. C. The Care of the Baby. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders. $1.50.
Hall, Gertrude. Foam of the Sea, and Other Tales. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Hale, Prof. E. E. Selections from the Poetry of Robert Herrick. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Hartmann, Prof. Edward von. The Sexes Compared, and Other Essays. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Haygood, A. G., Sr. The Monk and the Prince. Atlanta, Ga.: Foote & Davies Co. $1.
Hermant, Abel. Nathalie Madoré. Leipzig: Albert Langen.
Hervieu, Paul. Im Eigenen Licht. Leipzig: Albert Langen.
Hodgkin, Thomas. Italy and her Invaders. Vols. V. and VI. Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Macmillan.
Holford, C. N. Aristopia: A Romance-History of the New World. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Kipling, Rudyard, and Balestier, Wolcott. The Naulahka. Macmillan. 50 cents.
Kitson, Arthur. A Scientific Solution of the Money Question. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Larned, J. N. History for Ready Reference. Vol. V.—Tunnage to Zyp and Supplement. Springfield, Mass.: C. A. Nichols Co.
Moore, F. F. One Fair Daughter. Chicago: E. A. Weeks & Co. 50 cents.
Munroe, J. P. The Educational Ideal. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.
Optic, Oliver. Across India; or, Live Boys in the Far East. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Preston, Prof. Thomas. The Theory of Light. Macmillan. $5.
Private Letters of a Frenchwoman. G. W. Dillingham.
Rich, Helen H. Madame de Staël, the Rival of Napoleon. Chicago: Stone & Kimball. 15 cents.
Richard, Ernest. Seidel's Der Lindenbaum. American Book Co. 25 cents.
Sonnenschein, W. S. A Reader's Guide to Contemporary Literature. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Putnams. $7.50.
Starr, Julian. The Disagreeable Woman. G. W. Dillingham.
Stephens, Rev. W. R. W. The Life and Letters of Edward A. Freeman. 2 vols. Macmillan.
Tarbell, Miss Ida M. A Short Life of Napoleon Bonaparte. Illustrated. S. S. McClure. 50 cents.
Tomlinson, E. T. The Boy Soldiers of 1812. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
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